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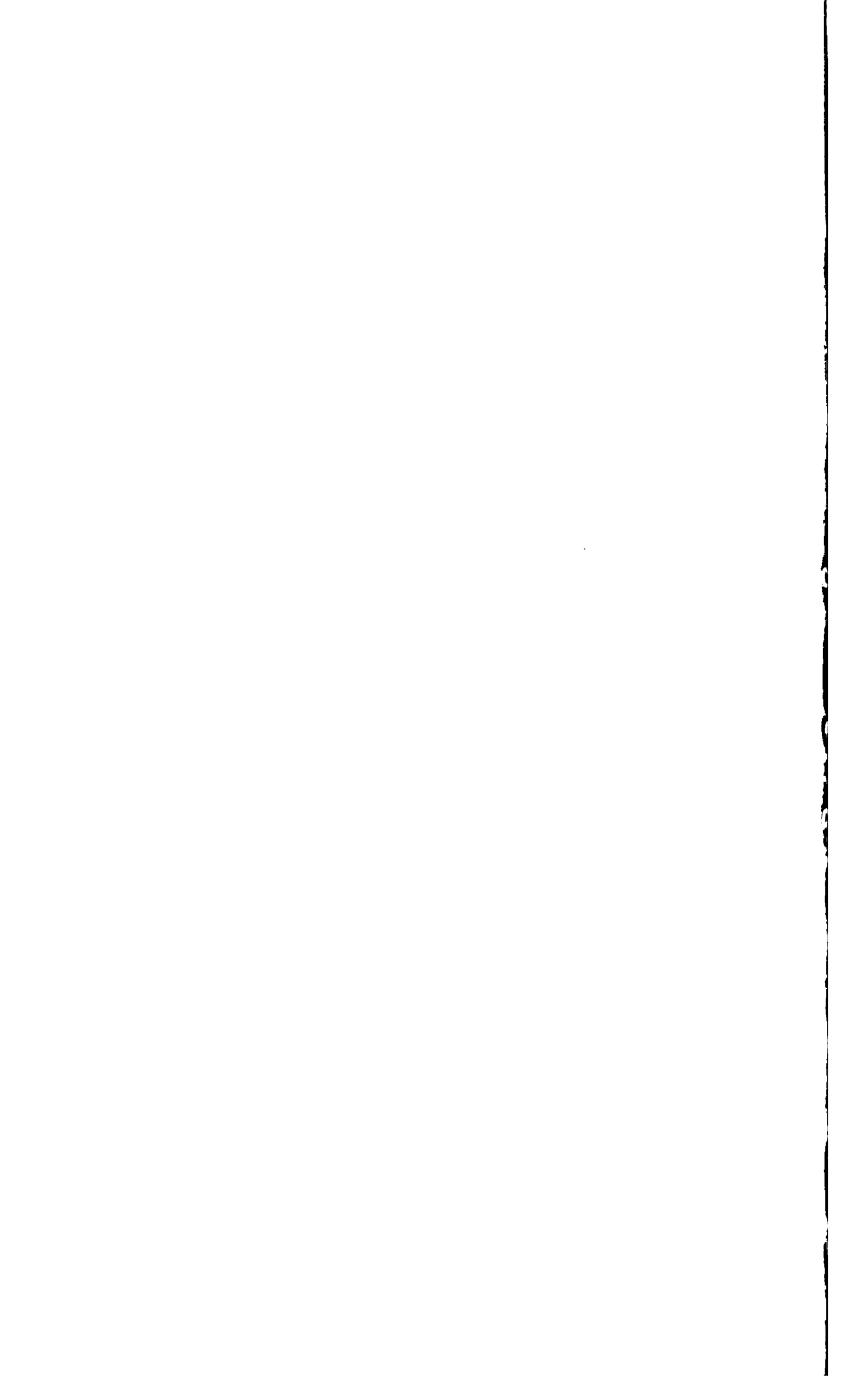
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EPITOME OF ANCIENT, MEDIÆVAL, AND MODERN HISTORY

BY

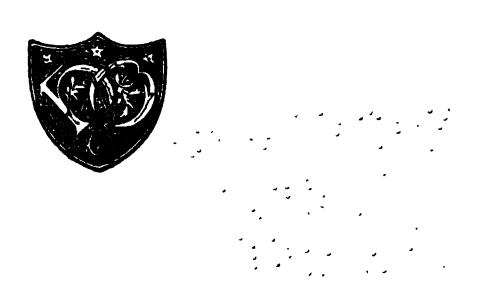
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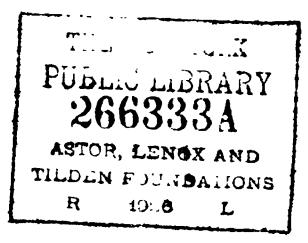
WILLIAM H. TILLINGHAST



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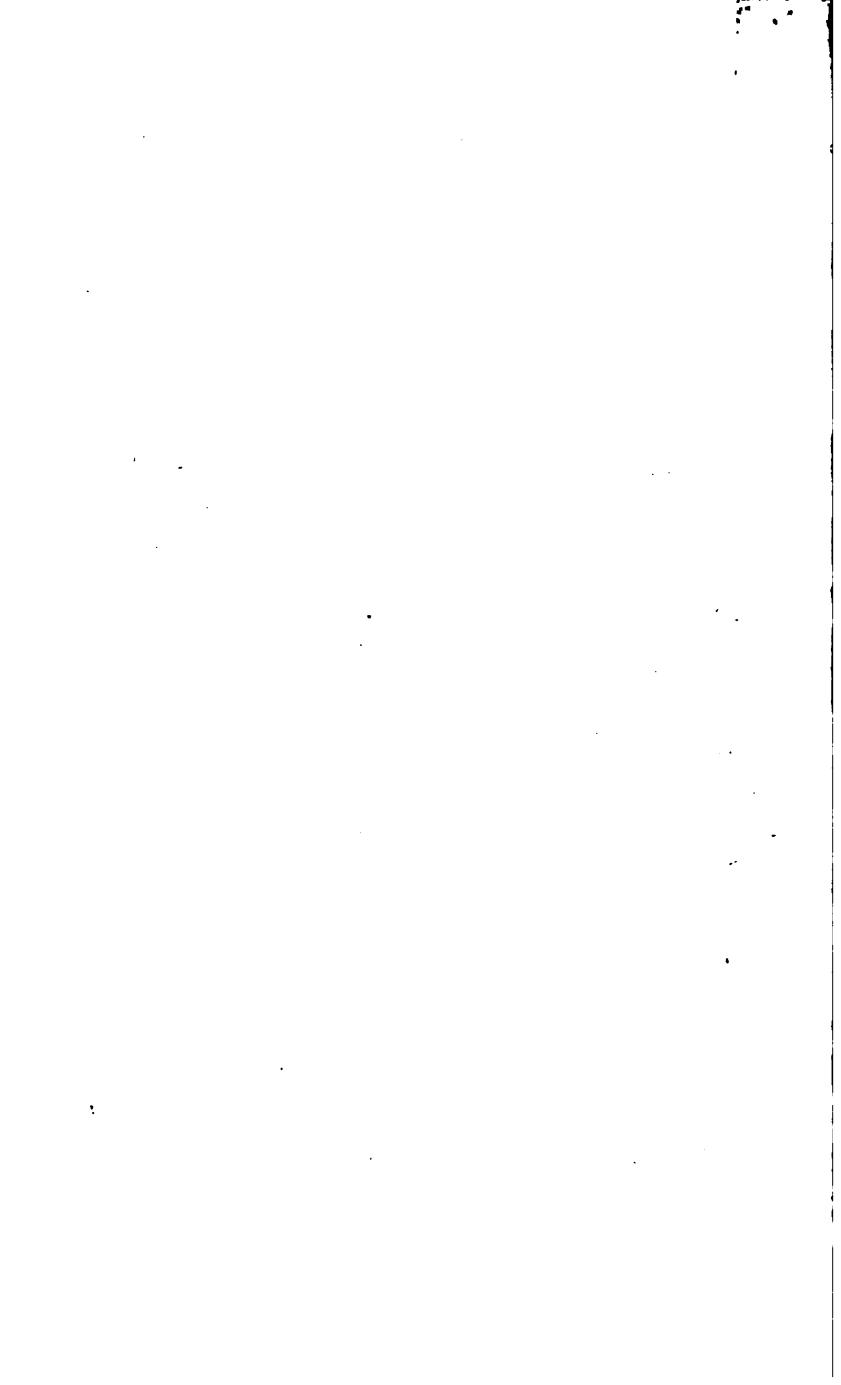
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¹ Contributed by Edward Channing, Ph. D.

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INTRODUCTION.

Prof. Dr. Carl Ploetz, well known in Germany as a veteran teacher, is the author of a number of educational works having a high reputation, among which none has better approved its usefulness than the "Epitome of Universal History." The admitted excellence of the book renders an apology for its translation unnecessary, but an extract from the author's preface respecting the nature and purpose of the work may not be out of place.

"The present 'Epitome,' which now appears in a seventh edition, enlarged and improved, is intended, in the first place, for use by the upper classes in higher educational institutions, as a guide or handbook in the historical classroom. The handy arrangement of the book and the elaborate index are intended to adapt it for private use, and to facilitate rapid acquisition of information concerning historical matters which have, for the moment, escaped the memory.

"I have endeavored to give everywhere the assured results of recent histor-

ical investigation, adding, as far as possible, references to my authorities.

"The exposition of ancient history is based upon the works of Duncker,

Curtius, Mommsen, and Peter.

"Mediæval history, which was treated somewhat too briefly in the earlier editions, has been made proportionately full since the fourth, and has been, moreover, enlarged, as has modern history, by the addition of a number of genealogical tables.

"In modern history the treaties of peace have been brought into especial prominence, and the principal conditions of the great treaties, through which alone one can get an insight into the historical formation of the present system

of European states, have been stated with all possible accuracy.

"Recent history has been brought down to the present day. The purpose and the compass of the book alike permitted nothing more than a compressed narrative of facts, as far as possible, free from the expression of personal opinion. This limitation of itself excludes the possibility of offending, whether in a religious or a political sense.

"All are probably now agreed that it is unadvisable for scholars to write out the lecture of the instructor in full, which, however, should not prevent them from taking notes here and there. No one denies the necessity of a guide as a basis for instruction; but widely differing ideas prevail concerning the arrange-

ment and extent of such a work.

"The author of this 'Epitome,' who was for a number of years historical instructor of the first and second classes in the French Gymnasium at Berlin, holds the opinion that even the best handbook can in no way take the place of an animated lecture, and that any guide which gives a connected narrative in

¹ Auszug aus der alten, mittleren und neueren Geschichte von Karl Ploetz. Siebente verbesserte und stark vermehrte Auflage, Berlin. A. G. Ploetz, 1880. The preparation of this edition was confided to Prof. Dr. O. Meltzer, author of Geschichte der Karthager, i. 1880.

some detail necessarily detracts from the value of the teacher's lecture, if in f

hands of the pupils in the class-room.

"I am persuaded that such a work should place before the pupil facts only in the wider sense of the word, and these grouped in the most comprehensive manner. The task of animating these facts by oral exposition ought to be left the instructor."

The translator has enlarged the book in no small degree, with the hope of increasing its general usefulness, and of giving it especial.

value in this country.

Under ancient history an attempt has been made to bring it ethnographical relations of the early peoples into prominence; believing that the uncertainty of our knowledge in this respect hardly be dwelt upon too strongly, the translator has tried to specific guardedly. Even the Indo-European family is far from being sa factorily understood; the details of the relationship of its constituent groups are not clear; the theory of a primitive Asiatic home and wave-like series of westward migrations is but one, though perhaps he best, among many speculations. Recent text-books have delighted with minutely ramified tables of Indo-European relationships, showing, with close approximation, when each group left the parent story each tribe the common group; this, though harmless as speculation is dangerous if taken for knowledge.

The speculations in regard to the early inhabitants of the Brit. . Isles should be received with like caution. Their provisional acceptant

ance, however, is so useful as to justify their insertion.

The mythical history of England, Ireland, and Scandinavia Lastern deemed worthy to stand beside that of Greece and Rome. The undoubted historical value of many of these traditions and the pair which they play in general literature will explain the presence even the distinctly fabulous tales. The distinction between myther theoretical explanation of myths, and tolerably trustworthy history has been kept constantly in view.

The history of certain countries, as China, Japan, Parthia and Persia under the Sassanidæ, which the stricter limits of the German work had caused the author to omit, has been added; in the cases of India, the Scandinavian monarchies before 1387, and France, the meagre account in the original has undergone considerable amplifica-

tion.

The greatest changes, however, will be found in the history of Eng-

^{1 &}quot;We must content ourselves, for the present, with the recognition of a fundamental primitive community of Indo-European languages, and refrain from dividing these languages into groups (except in the case of the Indo-Iranian tongues). Especially is this true of the unity of the Greeks and Italians, so often taken for granted. It cannot be said that this unity did not once exist, but neither can it be asserted that its existence is demonstrable. Whether or not the future will succeed in reaching more certain results remains to be seen; until such results are reached historians will do well to refrain from making use of such groups of languages and of tribes as the Græco-Italian and the Slavo-German." (B. Delbrück, Einleitung in das Sprachstudium, Leipzig, Breitkopf & Härtel, 1880.) Not all philologists will agree upon this point, — upon what point do all philologists agree? — and the archæologists have something to say upon the matter; the words just quoted are, nevertheless, worthy of consideration.

land and in that of America, which have been rewritten from the beginning with a fullness of detail proportional to that observed by

the original in the history of Germany.

In the additions nothing more than a compilation from reliable, but easily accessible, sources has been attempted. A few notes have been inserted and a few dates and facts interpolated in the text of the original, but these changes have been duly attributed to the translator, either directly or by the use of brackets, where they seemed of

sufficient importance.

Absolute accuracy cannot be looked for in a work dealing with so vast a number of dates and covering so wide a range in time; the translator, however, in the sections for which he is responsible, has endeavored to verify each date by reference to independent authorities. He will be grateful to all who will take the trouble to inform him of errors that have escaped his notice. That the proportion observed in the space allotted to different countries and epochs is open to criticism, the translator is well aware; the fault is due in part to the plan adopted by him of sending the earlier portions of the book to press before the later, were finished, in the vain hope of hastening its completion.

Except in the case of the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian wars, where much of the minute descriptive detail has been omitted,

no attempt has been made to condense the original.

Various circumstances have delayed the appearance of the book much beyond the time for which it was announced; that it is at last ready is due to the kindness of Dr. Edward Channing, of Harvard College, who took upon himself the preparation of those sections which contain the history of Great Britain and her colonies from 1784 to 1883, and that of the United States from 1789 to 1883. The thanks of the translator are also due to Professor H. W. Torrey, of Harvard College, for the loan of material of which free use has been made for English history in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and for French history in the nineteenth century; and to Mr. Justin Winsor, Librarian of the University, for the free use of books.

To Dr. R. H. Labberton and to Messrs. E. Claxton & Co. of Philadelphia, the translator is indebted for courteous permission to use certain genealogical tables in Dr. Labberton's exceedingly useful

"Outlines of History." 1

The distinguishing feature of the "Epitome" is the arrangement whereby a brief connected narrative is accompanied by a clear, well-graduated chronology which emphasizes the sequence of events without breaking up the story or fatiguing the mind. An attempt has been made, by the use of italics and two sizes of black type, to mark and distinguish events according to their relative importance, and also to relieve the page; while, with the latter object in view, the use of capitals has been as far as possible dispensed with, although the manner of printing the book has prevented consistency in this

¹ Labberton, R. H., Outlines of History, with original tables, chronological, genealogical, and literary. Thirteenth edition. Philadelphia, E. Claxton & Co., 1883. Text and Historical Atlas. The tables used are II., III., XVI., which appear on pages 265, 256, 332, of the present work.

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respect. Especial care has been devoted to the index, which has been made very full, in order that the book might serve as a historical dictionary, as well as a chronology.

Note. — The appendix mentioned upon p. 2 has been omittee, owing to the increased size of the book.

UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

A GENERAL VIEW OF ITS PRINCIPAL DIVISIONS.

- **X** B. C. 375 A. D. I. Ancient history, from the beginning of historical information to the commencement of the migrations of the Teutonic tribes.
- 375—1492. II. Mediæval history, from the commencement of the migrations of the Teutonic tribes to the discovery of America.
 - 1492—x. III. Modern history, from the discovery of America to the present time.
- Ancient history, treated ethnographically, falls into two great divisions:
- A. Eastern peoples: Egyptians (Hamitic); Jews, Babylonians, Assyrians, Phœnicians, Lydians (Semitic); Hindus, Bactrians, Medes, Persians (Aryan); Parthians, Chinese, Japanese (Turanian?).
- B. Western Peoples: Celts, Britons, Greeks, Romans, Teutons (Aryan).
- Mediæval history can be divided into four chronological periods:
 - 375-843. 1. From the commencement of the migrations of the Teutonic Tribes to the Treaty of Verdun.
 - 843-1096. 2. From the Treaty of Verdun to the beginning of the Crusades.
- 1096-1270. 3. The epoch of the Crusades.
- 1270-1492. 4. From the end of the Crusades to the discovery of America.

Modern history can also be divided into four periods:

- 1492-1648. 1. From the discovery of America to the Peace of Westphalia.
- 1648-1789. 2. From the Peace of Westphalia to the outbreak of the first French Revolution.
- 1789–1815. 3. From the outbreak of the first French Revolution to the Congress of Vienna.
- 1815-x. 4. From the Congress of Vienna to the present time.

I. ANCIENT HISTORY.

A. EASTERN PEOPLES.1

§ 1. EGYPTIANS. Hamites.

Geography: Egypt 2 (Kem, i. e. "black earth" in old Egyptian) is the valley of the Nile, which extends between two chains of low hills for 550 miles, with a breadth, above the Delta, of but a few miles. It is divided into Upper Egypt (Philae, Elephantine, Thebes or Diospòlis, called by Homer ἐκατόμπυλος, the "hundred gated," a designation which must refer to the entrances of temples and palaces, since the city had neither walls nor gates) and Lower Egypt (Memphis; in the Delta, Tanis, Bubastis, Naucrătis, Saïs; west of the Delta, Canopus, now Abukir; on the east, Pelusium; the latter cities standing on what were, in ancient times, the largest mouths of the Nile). These divisions were originally, in all probability, independent coun-They are not to be confounded with the separate principalities which became numerous at a later time. This division was commemorated in the royal title of the kings of the united countries, "lords of the upper and lower country," "lords of the two crowns."

Religion: Worship of personified forces of Nature and symbolical animal worship. In Memphis especial reverence paid to Ptah, the highest of the gods, the first creator; in his temple stood the sacred bull Apis (Egypt. Api), also closely connected with Ostris. Ra, worshipped particularly in On or Heliopolis, represented the transmitting and preserving power of the godhead embodied in the sun. Khem, was the god of generation and growth. Reverence was also paid to the goddess Neüth, whose worship at Saïs was considered by the Greeks to be identical with that of Athena, to the goddess Bast or Pacht (at Bubastis), and to the goddess of Buto, on one of the mouths of the Nile.

At Thebes, cult of Ammon (Amun), the god of heaven, later united with Ra to form a single divinity. In Upper Egypt worship was paid to Mentu, the rising sun; Tum or Atmu, the setting sun; Chnum or Kneph, god of the overflow, always represented with a ram's head and double horns, and later becoming united with Ammon to form one divinity; and to the goddess Mut (i. e. "mother"). The educated

2s, see Appendix I.

4tlas Antiquus, Tab. III.

2sellini and Lepsius the title of Pharaoh is derived from s Son of the Sun. Ebers and Brugsch derive it from house." (Compare "Sublime Porte.")

Myth of Osiris, the creative force in Nature, who was killed and thrown into the sea by Set (Typhon), the destructive force in Nature (especially drought); sought after by his sorrowing consort Isis (the earth), he was avenged by their son Horos, who slew Set; restored to life, Ostris thenceforward ruled in the lower world (decay and resurrection of the creative force in nature; immortality of the soul). Conjoined with *Horos*, the goddess *Hathor*, considered by the Greeks to be the same as Aphrodue.

Highly developed moral code.

Civilization: Fertility of the valley of the Nile maintained by the regular overflow of the Nile, beginning at the end of July and last-

Hieroglyphics, very early in conjunction with the hieratic, and afterwards the demotic, characters (syllabic and phonetic signs), which represented the language of daily life, the dialect of the common people.

Embalming of the dead. (Mummies.)

Avoidance of intercourse with foreign peoples and adoption of foreign customs. Strict regulation of the entire life by religious prescriptions.

Castes: Priests, warriors, agricultural laborers, artisans, shepherds. These castes, however, were in no wise absolutely separated from one

another.

Form of Government: Despotic monarchy, with divine attributes, also in possession of the highest spiritual power. Strong influence of the priests, especially after the fourteenth century, but they never controlled the supreme power.1

The **Pyramids** are gigantic monuments of the kings. Over thirty still exist.² The largest, at Gizeh, was originally 480 feet high, and still measures 450 feet. The Obelisks — of which one is now at Paris, several in Rome, one in London, and one in New York — are cut from single blocks of stone (monoliths), and were offerings to

the sun-god Ra; the Sphinxes were symbols of the sun-god.

Chronology: The Egyptians filled the space before Mena, the first of the historic line of kings, by the assumption of three dynasties of gods, demi-gods, and "the mysterious manes." The list of kings after Mena was given at length by the priest Manetho (about 250 B. C.), in his history of Egypt. He arranged them in thirty dy-To reconcile the names and nasties, a division which is still used. dates given by Manetho with the records upon the monuments is a difficult matter, owing in part to the fact that several of the dynasties of Manetho probably reigned contemporaneously in different parts of Egypt, that it was the custom for a king to associate his son with himself during the latter part of his reign, and that the son afterwards reckoned his reign from the date of such association. Hence the systems of chronology, drawn up by Egyptologists, vary greatly. There are, in general, two schools: (1.) The long chronology, advocated on the continent, wherein the dates assigned to Mena vary from

<sup>See Duncker, History of Antiquity, I. 180.
Lepsius saw traces and remains of sixty-seven pyramids; Brugsch of</sup> more than seventy.

- 5702 (Boeckh) to 3623 (Bunsen). (2.) The short chronology, advocated in England, wherein the dates assigned to Mena vary between 2700 and 2440. In the following pages the chronology of Lepsius is followed, with the exception of the date assigned to Mena, which Lepsius gives as 3892 B. C. These dates should be compared with the lists given by Brugsch 1 and by Rawlinson.2 Before
- 3000. The old empire of the Egyptians, in the lower valley of the Nile, founded according to Egyptian tradition by Mena⁸ (Menes). Capital: Memphis.
- 2800-2700 (?). The kings Khufu, Khafra, Menkaura (according to Herodotus, Cheops, Chephren, Mykerinos), the builders of the largest pyramids. IVth dynasty (Memphis) called the "Pyramid dynasty."

About 2400. Removal of the centre of government of the empire to Thebes.

Of the princes of this line the following deserve mention: Amenemhat I. (2380-2371), who seems to have extended the power of Egypt up the Nile and over a part of Nubia; Usurtasen I. (2371-2325) who continued the conquests of his predecessor, and erected obelisks; Amenemhat II.; Usurtasen III.; Amenemhat III. (2221-2179) constructed lake Meri 4 (i. e. "lake of inundations"), a large reservoir for regulating the water supply of the Nile, and built S. of this lake the so-called Labyrinth, a large palace for ceremonial acts and sacrifices. These six monarchs belong to the XIIth dynasty (of Thebes).

About 2100. Egypt conquered by the **Hyksos**, or **Shepherd Kings**. The **Hyksos** (derived from Hyk, king, and Schasu, shepherds, contracted into $S\hat{o}s$) were wandering tribes of Semitic descent.

- About 1800. Thebes revolted against the rule of the Hyksos. Native rulers maintained themselves in Upper Egypt. After a long contest the Shepherd kings were driven out of Egypt completely under King Aahmes (Amosis), of Thebes (1684-1659).5 Their epoch covers the XIIIth to XVIIth dynasties.
- 1670 525. The new empire (capital at first Thebes), under Thutmes III. (Thutmosis, 1591-1515; XVIIIth dynasty) increased rapidly in power and extent.
- 1524-1488. Under Thutmes and his successors, especially Amenhotep III. (Amenophis), successful expeditions against the Syrians (Ruthen) and against the Ethiopians in the south.

1 History of Egypt. Appendix. See also I. 37, and xxxii. note 1. 2 History of Egypt, or Manual of History, p. 61, and foll.

4 Called by the Greeks Mæris (Moipos, Herod. I. 101), and erroneously inter-

preted as a royal name.

⁵ Duncker, History of Antiquity, I. 130, and foll.

The royal nomenclature of the Egyptians is as picturesquely varied as their chronology. I have given first some form of the true Egyptian name, as found on the monuments, generally that adopted by Brugsch, and have followed it by the more common name, as given by Manetho, Herodotus, or the Jewish Scriptures, in parentheses. [Trans.]

Erection of magnificent palaces and temples at Thebes. (Ruins near the present villages of Carnac, Luxor, and Medinet-Hafu; near the latter two sitting colossi, statues of Amenhotep, one of which the Greeks called the musical Statue of Memnon.)

Similar success in war fell to the lot of Seti I. (Sethos). **1438–1388.** Expeditions to Ethiopia, Arabia, and to the Euphrates. Temple of Ammon on the left bank of the Nile, opposite Thebes. His son,

Ramessu II., the Great (Sestu-Ra, Ramses), 1388–1322. was victorious in the early part of his reign, but could not long maintain his supremacy over Syria (XIXth dynasty).

In spite of this a peculiar tradition transformed him into that military hero whom the Greeks knew as Sesostris (Herodotus, II. 102-110), or Sesoosis (Diod. Sic. I. 53-58), and to whom they ascribed fabulous expeditions to Thrace and India. This tradition seems to have had its origin in the bombastic expressions common to the royal inscriptions of the Egyptians, and in poetic exaltations of his earlier victories. In the Greek account we have besides a confusion of recollections of the glorious deeds of Thutmes and Amenhotep, of Seti and Ramessu III.

During his long reign he covered Egypt with magnificent buildings. Splendid palace known as "the House of Ramses," south of Carnac; temple of Ammon, 400 miles above Syene. Commencement of a canal between the Red Sea and the Nile. Ramessu II. was probably the oppressor of the Hebrews. Under his successor, 1322-1302. Mineptah, i. e. "beloved of Ptah," occurred the exo-

dus of the Hebrews from Egypt (see page 8).1

1269–1244. Ramessu III. (Rhampsinitus, XXth dynasty). Successful resistance offered to the Libyan and Semitic tribes; expeditions as far as *Phænicia* and *Syria*. (Story of the theft from the treasury, Herodotus, II. 121.)

1244-1091. Decay of the empire under the later kings of the name of Ramses.

A new dynasty (XXI.) came to the throne with King Hirhor (Smendes). The seat of their power was Tanis, in the Delta, whence they are called Tanites.

Loss of supremacy over Ethiopia, where the kingdom of Napata or Meroe was founded.

961-940. Shashang I. (Sesonchis, Shisak), from Bubastis, founded a new dynasty (XXII.).2 He undertook (949) a successful expedition against Judæa. Jerusalem conquered and plundered.

1 It may have occurred under his successor of the same name; the date of whose reign, as well as the reigns of the kings immediately preceding, would have to be placed several decades earlier, in agreement with Duncker and

² The opinion of Brugsch, History of Egypt, II. 198, that an Assyrian conquest of Egypt occurred at this time, and that Shashang I. was the son of the conqueror, Nimrod, king of Assyria, has not found favor among Egyptologists. TRANS.

730. The Ethiopians, under Shabak (Sabako), conquered Egypt, which they governed for fifty-eight years under three succes-

sive kings. (XXVth dynasty.)

672. An expedition of the Assyrians, under **Esarhaddon** (p. 15), against Egypt. The king of the Assyrians and his son, Asshurbanipal (Sardanapalus), put an end to the rule of the Ethiopians (under Taharak or Tirhakah, the second successor of Shabak), and entrusted the government of Egypt to twenty governors, most of whom were natives.

653. One of these governors, Psamethik, in alliance with Gyges, king of Lydia, with the help of Carians, Phœnicians, and Ionians, made himself independent of Assyria, and sole ruler of Egypt (XXVIth dynasty, of Saïs).

The tale of the twelve native princes (the **Dodecarchy** of Herodotus and Diodorus), according to which Psammeticus defeated his eleven co-regents at *Momemphis*, is not historical. The number, 12, is derived from the twelve courts of columns in the Labyrinth, which, according to Herodotus and Diodorus, was built by the twelve princes, whereas this gigantic building had already been standing 1500 years (p. 4).

653-610. Psamethik I., king of Egypt, from the mouths of the Nile to *Elephantine*, above which place the Ethiopians held the supremacy. (XXVIth dynasty.)

New capital, Saïs, in the Delta, where Psamethik built a magnificent palace. Egypt opened to foreigners, who were favored in the army and settled at various points. Caste of Interpreters. Greek factory at Naucrătis. Dissatisfaction among the military caste; emigrations upward along the Nile to Ethiopia.

Psamethik carried on wars in Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine; they were probably undertaken in the first instance to strengthen his frontier against a new attack by the Assyrians, which he dreaded. These wars led to no lasting conquests. The son of Psamethik,

- 610-595. Neku (Necho), revived the plan of Ramses to unite the Nile and the Red Sea by a canal, but did not succeed in carrying it out. By his orders Africa was circumnavigated by Phænician seamen. He undertook expeditions to Syria where he was at first successful, and defeated the king of Judah in the battle of Megiddo (609), but was afterwards defeated by the Babylonians in the
- 605. Battle of Karchemish. Loss of all his conquests in Asia. Neku's son,
- 595-589. Psamethik II. Expedition against Ethiopia without success. His son,
- 589-570. Hophra (Apries), fought without lasting success against Nebuchadnezzar, and sent help to the tribes of Libya against Cyrene. His defeated army revolted, and he was defeated at the head of Ionian and Carian mercenaries, captured and strangled.

- 570-526. Aahmes (Amāsis), an Egyptian of low origin, ascended the throne. Encouragement of foreigners, especially of the Greeks, carried still farther; numerous Grecian temples erected in Naucrātis. Friendship with Cyrene and Polycrates of Samos. Magnificent buildings, especially in Saïs. The son of Amāsis,
- 525. Psamethik III., defeated in the battle of Pelusium by Cambyses. Egypt a Persian province.

§ 2. JEWS (HEBREWS, ISRAELITES). Semitic.

Geography. The land of the Jews is bounded N. by Cœlo-Syria; W. by Phænicia, the Mediterranean, and the land of the Philistines; S. by Arabia Petræa; E. by the Arabian Desert.

The name Canaan, i. e. "low land," was originally applied to the region along the coast, but was at an early date extended to the inland

country.

The names Canaanite and Phænician have properly the same meaning; the first was the Semitic, the second the Grecian name for the

inhabitants of the whole land before the Jewish conquest.

Palestine was originally the name of the southern coast-land, which was so called after the Semitic tribe of the *Philistines* (*Pelishtim*) which had possession of it, but was transferred by Egyptians and Greeks to the land occupied by the Jews. In the Bible the country is called "the promised land," i. e. the land promised by Jehovah to the children of Israel.

The river Jordan, which rises in the mountain range of Antilebanon and empties into the Dead Sea (Sodom, Gomorrah), runs through the middle of the country. After the Jewish conquest the country was divided into the twelve provinces of the twelve tribes; after the death of Solomon into the kingdoms of Judah and Israel; at the time of Christ into four districts: 1. Judæa (Jerusalem, Hebr. Jerushalaïm; Greek Ίεροσόλυμα, with the fortress of Zion and the Temple on Mt. Moriah; Bethlehem, Jericho, Joppa, now Jaffa, on the coast); 2. Samaria (Samaria, Sichem); 3. Galilæa (Nazareth, Capernaüm on the sea of Tiberias or Genezareth, Cana); east from Jorden 4. Peræa.

In the country of the Philistines, the coast region between Pales-

tine and Egypt: Ashdod, Ascalon, Gaza, Ekron, Gath.

Chronology.² As is the case with the earliest history of all nations, the chronology of Jewish history is uncertain. There is a long and a short system, but here the short system found favor on the continent, while the long system prevails in England.

2000 (?). Abraham (Abram), Patriarch of the Hebrews (i. e. "those from the other side," because they immigrated from Ur in Babylonia), Israelites, or Jews.

According to the traditions of the Hebrews, Abraham had two sons: Ishmael by Hagar, the ancestor of the Ishmaelites (Arabians); and Isaac, by his lawful wife Sarah. The son of Isaac by Rebekah, Jacob

¹ Cf. Kiepert, Atlas antiques, Tab. III.

² Cf. Duncker, History of Antiquity, II. 112, note.

or Israel, the true tribal ancestor of the Hebrews. Jacob's twelve sons: by Leah — Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah, Issachar, Zebulon; by Rachel — Joseph, Benjamin; by Bilhah — Dan, Naphtali; by Zilpah — Gad, Asher.

- 1550 (?). Joseph. The tribe of the Hebrews migrated to Egypt. They settled in the land of Goshen, on the right bank of the Pelusian mouth of the Nile. It is claimed that the master of Joseph was Apepi, the last of the Shepherd kings of Egypt (see p. 4, where the chronology does not agree with the theory, which, however, is no objection, as it could be easily made to conform.)
- 1320 (?). Moses conducted the Hebrews out of Egypt.

 Ten commandments at Mt. Sinai. The laws of Moses.
- About 1250. The Israelites (Joshua) after a long nomadic life in the peninsula of Sinai and on the east of Jordan conquered the *Promised Land*, but without entirely subjugating the former inhabitants.

Theocracy, i. e. the nation was under the immediate guidance of Jehovah. The office of the high priest was hereditary in the family of Aaron, the brother of Moses. The Tabernacle, a portable temple or holy tent. The Ark of the Covenant. To the family of Levi (son of Jacob-Israel) was given the exclusive care and service of the tabernacle and all things used in the religious ceremonial.

The other twelve tribes (named from ten sons of Jacob (see above) and two sons of Joseph, Ephraim and Manasseh) settled in separate districts, which were more or less cut off from one another by remnants of the former inhabitants, and formed an exceedingly loose union of twelve small states under tribal chiefs, which was at times hard

pressed by neighboring tribes.

Judges (Shofetim): men raised up by Jehovah in times of need, especially military leaders in the wars against the Canaanite tribes: Amorites (of whom the Jebusites were a part), Amalekites, Hittites, Hivites, and against the Philistines, Midianites, Ammonites, Moabites. Judges: Ehud; the heroine Deborah; Gideon, conqueror of the Midianites; Jephthah, conqueror of the Ammonites; Samson, the terror of the Philistines.

1070. The Philistines subjugated the whole country this side Jordan.

At the demand of the people, Samuel, the last "Judge in Israel," anointed a brave man of the tribe of Benjamin,

1055 (?). Saul, as king of the Jews.

Victory of Saul over the Moabites, Philistines, Edomites, and Amalekites. Samuel, being at variance with Saul, anointed David, from the tribe of Judah, as king, at the command of Jehovah. David fled to the Philistines from the persecution of Saul. Saul defeated by the Philistines, put an end to his life (1033?). For seven years David

¹ English scholars place the Exodus at 1652 or 1491.

was recognized as king by the tribe of Judah only, the other tribes under the influence of the captain, Abner, adhering to Saul's son, Ishbosheth. After the murder of Abner and Ish-bosheth, all the tribes acknowledged David as king in the assembly at Hebron.

- 1025 (?). David. Kingdom of the Jews at the highest point of its power. David wrested Jerusalem from the Jebusites, and made it his residence. He restrained the Philistines within their own borders. His sway extended from the N.E. end of the Red Sea to Damascus. Erection of a royal palace at Zion. Ark of the Covenant placed in Jerusalem. Organization of the army. Religious poetry of the Hebrews at the height of its development. The Psalms. Revolt and death of Absalom (Ahithophel). David passed over his son Adonijah, by Haggith, and other sons, and appointed his son by Bathsheba his successor.
- 993 (?). Solomon. Erection of the Temple of Jehovah and a new palace in Jerusalem, with the aid of workmen from Tyre. Magnificent court. Standing army. Extensive commerce. Defection of Damascus. Foundation of Tadmor in an oasis of the Syrian desert. At the close of Solomon's reign, toleration of foreign idolatry in Jerusalem. After the death of Solomon,

953 (?), Division of the kingdom of the Jews.¹

The tribe of Judah, the tribe of Simeon, which had become united with Judah, and a part of Benjamin with the Levites, remained true to Rehoboam the son of Solomon, and formed the Kingdom of Judah (capital, Jerusalem); the other tribes, under Jeroboam, formed the Kingdom of Israel farther north (capital at first Sichem, still later Samaria and Jezreel). These two kingdoms were frequently at war with one another.

Kingdom of Israel.

After the death of the energetic Jeroboam (953-927), his son Nadab was murdered by the captain Baasha, who ascended the throne (925). His son and successor Elah was slain by Zimri; Tibni and Omri disputed the throne, but Omri prevailed in the end (899). The son of Omri, Ahab, married Jezebel, princess of Tyre, whereby the practice of Phænician idolatry (Baal and Astarte) was extended in Israel.

Contest of the Prophets (Elijah, Elisha, etc.) with the idolatrous monarchy. Israel and Judah united for a short time. Ahab's son Ahaziah (853-851). The captain Jehu, anointed king by Elisha, slew the brother of Ahaziah, Jeram (851-843), and put to death Jezebel and seventy sons and grandsons of Ahab. Jehu (843-815) destroyed the temple of Baal and put to death the priests of that god. Decline of Israel's power, which was only temporarily revived by the

¹ About the chronology, cf. Duncker, II. 234, note. The long system gives 975 B. C.

fourth king of the line of Jehu, Jeroboam II. (790-749). After the fall of the house of Jehu, the kingdom of Israel became tributary to the Assyrians. Tiglath-Pileser conquered the northeastern part of the kingdom. Hoshea, the last king of Israel (734), tried to free his country from the Assyrian yoke, but was defeated and captured by Shalmaneser IV. After a three years' siege,

722. Samaria was captured by Sargon, king of the Assyrians, the Kingdom of Israel was destroyed, and a part of the people carried away and settled in Assyria and Media.

Kingdom of Judah.

In the reign of Rehoboam the country was overrun by the Egyptians

under the Pharaoh Shashang (Shishak).

Sack of Jerusalem (949). Rehoboam's grandson Asa (929-873) abolished idolatry, which was prohibited by the law. He was compelled to buy assistance from the king of Damascus against Baasha of Israel. Energetic reign of his son Jehoshaphat (873-848). In the hope of putting an end to the war with the Kingdom of Israel, Jehoshaphat married his son Jehoram (848-844) to Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab of Israel and Jezebel. After the son of Athaliah, Ahaziah, was murdered while on a visit to the king of Israel, together with the whole royal family of the Kingdom of Israel as above described (p. 9), Athaliah (843-837) seized the supreme power in Jerusalem, put to death her own grandchildren in order to destroy the tribe of David, Joash alone being miraculously rescued and brought up in the Temple of Jehovah, and introduced the worship of Baal in Jerusalem. Athaliah was overthrown and put to death by the high priest Jehoiada, and the young Joash raised to the throne. The worship of Baal was abolished.

Joash (837-797) was obliged to purchase the retreat of the army from Damascus which was besieging Jerusalem. Murder of Joash. Under his son Amaziah (797-792) Jerusalem was captured by the Israelites; the Temple and palace plundered. Amaziah was murdered; but his son Uzziah (Azariah, 792-740) successfully resisted the murderers and raised the kingdom again to a position of power and au-

thority. The Prophet Isaiah.

Under the successors of Amaziah, the Kingdom of Judah, hard pressed by the Kingdom of Israel and by Damascus, became tributary to the Assyrians. King Hezekiah (728-697) again abolished idolatry, refused to pay tribute to the Assyrians, and allied himself with the Egyptians. The Assyrians under Sennacherib besieged Jerusalem in vain, but carried off many of the inhabitants of the open country into captivity. Hezekiah's son Manasseh (697-642) transformed the Temple of Jehovah into a temple of Astarte, and sacrificed to Baal and Moloch in spite of the opposition of the prophets; he submitted again to the Assyrians, was carried captive to Babylon, but in the end re-

¹ In the date 722, the Hebrew chronology agrees with that of the Assyrian monuments. Cf. Schrader, Die Keilinschriften u. das alte Testament, 1872, 1882, and Ménant, Annales des Rois d'Assyrie, 1874.

stored to his throne. Under his grandson Josiah (640-609), the country was ravaged by Scythians.

Religious reaction against idolatry (Jeremiah). Reformation of the worship of Jehovah, according to the book of the law of Moses which was rediscovered in the Temple (622). King Josiah fell in the battle of Megiddo (609) against the Egyptian king Necho (Neku).

The Kingdom of Judah subject to the Egyptians, and, after the defeat of Necho at Carchemish (605), to the Babylonians. Jehoiakim endeavored to revolt, but was put to death. His son, Jehoiachin, was carried into captivity with many of his subjects by the Babylonians (597). An attempt on the part of the last king, Zedekiah, to regain independence was unsuccessful in spite of Egyptian assistance. Jerusalem was besieged (588–586); an Egyptian army advancing to its relief was defeated and compelled to retreat.

- 586. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, captured Jerusalem. Destruction of the city and burning of the Temple. Many of the Jews were slain; those who were left were carried into the Babylonian captivity. (The prophet Ezekiel.)
- 537. The Jews sent back to Palestine by Cyrus. Rebuilding of the Temple (Zerubbabel), which was not completed, however, until the time of Darius I. (516). The Jews subject at first to the Persians (538-332) then to Alexander the Great (332-323), afterwards to the Ptolemies (323-198), finally to the Seleucid kings of Syria (198-167).
- 167-130. Emancipation of the Jews by the Maccabees, or Asmonæans, after a struggle lasting nearly fourteen years. Leaders: the priest *Mattathias*, and his five sons, especially Judas Maccabæus.

A great-grandson of Mattathias, Aristobulus, assumed the title of king (105). Under his successors, strife between the Pharisees and Sadducees.

63. Pompeius, called in to help the Pharisees, made the Jews tributary to the Romans.

40. Herod (the Great), son of the Idumæan Antipater, recognized by the Roman Senate as dependent king of Judæa.

- Birth of Christ (four years before the beginning of our era?).
- 6 A. D. After a short reign of the three sons of *Herod*, Judæa became a part of the Roman Province of Syria. (Two *Tetrarchies*, however, remained independent: *Galilæa*, until 32 A. D.; *Peræa*, until 33 A. D.)
- 41-44. Judæa again a dependent kingdom under Herod Agrippa I., a grandson of Herod the Great; then a Roman province again. Agrippa II. was made king over a small portion in dependence on Rome.
- 66. Revolt of the Jews against the Roman supremacy, ending in the

70. Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.

A large part of the Jews assembled in Jerusalem for the observance of the passover perished by starvation and the Roman sword; many thousands were taken captive to Rome. (The historian Josephus.) 132-135. Another uprisal of the Jews, under Hadrian, on account of the foundation of the colony, Ælia Capitolina, on the site of Jerusalem, wherein more than half a million perished. Dispersal of a great part of the survivors; nevertheless a considerable number remained in Palestine.

§ 3. BABYLONIANS AND ASSYRIANS. Semitic.

Geography: Babylonia, called by the Hebrews Shinar, is the country lying between the Euphrates and Tigris, and stretching from the point where these rivers approach one another, about 350 miles from their mouth, to where they empty into the Persian Gulf by several arms, as Pasitigris (now Shatt-el-Arab). In the neighborhood of the present village of Hillah stood Babylon (in the Babylonian form, Babilu, called by the Hebrews Babel, i. e. gates or dwelling of the god Bel), a huge rectangular city, situated, since the time of Nebuchadnezzar, on both banks of the Euphrates, about thirty-four miles in circumference (Clitarchus; Herodotus gives about forty-five miles), and surrounded by two brick walls of unusual thickness and height. The city was large enough to afford a refuge to a great number of the inhabitants of the country during incursions of nomadic tribes, and contained fields of considerable extent, woods, and gardens. In Babylon: (a.) The temple of Bel (Tower of Babel), a huge square building of brick, consisting of eight diminishing stories rising in pyramidal It is said to have been originally 600 feet high.² (b.) Two Palaces, the one on the east side of the Euphrates having the Hanging Gardens, the construction of which is wrongly ascribed to Semiramis, and which were terraced pleasure grounds.

Assyria (Asshur) is bounded on the N. by the highlands of Armenia, on the E. by the plateau of Iran, on the S. by the Diăla, a branch of the Tigris, and on the W. by the Tigris itself. The smaller region called Assyria by the Greeks lay within this territory, between the Tigris and its branch, the great Zab, which flows into the Tigris below the present Môssul. On the Tigris stood Nineveh (Ninua, "the Palace," ħ Nîvos) surrounded with huge walls. The ruins lie opposite the present Môssul. Oldest residence of the kings, Asshur; afterwards founded, Calah; founded by Sargon, Dur-Sarrukin (Khorsabad).

Religion of the Babylonians and Assyrians. The religion of the Semitic peoples, with the exception of the Hebrews, was a worship of nature, wherein divinity was conceived as the personified force of na-

¹ See Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. II.

² According to Oppert (Expéd. Scient. en Mésopotamie) the temple of Bel is to be sought in the ruins of Burs-Nimrud (on the site of old Borsippa). Rawlinson (The Five Great Monarchies of the East) disputes this, because Borsippa was a separate village lying outside the walls of the capital until the reign of Nebuchadnezzar, and finds the Tower of Babel in a great quadrangular ruin, called Bâbil, by the Arabs, on the east bank of the Euphrates in Babylon.

ture in human form, male and female. Among the gods of the Babylonians the oldest was El, among those of the Assyrians, Assur. The third, Bel (Baal), the "Lord of all," appeared as the creative, but also the destructive force in Nature. The goddess Belit or Baaltis (in Herodotus Mylitta), the queen and mother of the gods, is the fruitful and reproductive principle, the goddess of love, fertility, and birth. Her opposite is Istar, the goddess of war and destruction. Confused with Belit is the goddess who brings alternately life and blessing, death and destruction (like the Ashera-Astarte of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians). In Babylon there was a complicated system of star-worship.

The Chaldeans, or caste of priests, in Babylon, possessed some astronomical and astrological skill. This name was properly that of the Semitic population of Babylonia, but western writers applied it

chiefly to the priests.

Civilization. An exact system of weights and measures, which was used far outside the borders of Babylonia. Cuneiform writing, a system of characters formed by the gradual abbreviation of hieroglyphics. Magnificent structures of brick. System of canals for the irrigation of the country, and for the regulation of the yearly overflow of the Tigris and Euphrates. Important manufacturing industries and extensive commerce.

Chronology. Owing to the astronomical skill native to the nations of the Euphrates valley, their chronology is throughout less uncertain than that of other ancient nations, and became quite correct at an early date. The oldest dates rest on the authority of Berosus, who wrote at the time of Alexander. The Assyrian monuments furnish exact dates from 909 1 B. C.

- 3000. Beginning of Babylonian civilization, originating perhaps in a people of Turco-Tatar descent (Sumir and Akkad?). Before 2500 B. c. the Semitic people of the Babylonians (Chaldeans) coming probably from the S., invaded and conquered the country, taking to themselves the civilization which had then developed, and with it the cuneiform writing. Foundation of several states in the southern part of the country.
- About 2000. Old Babylonian or Chaldean Empire. Babylonia, for some 300 years a dependency of the neighboring empire of Elam (Elymais, Susiana), regained its independence. Babylon became the centre of the united empire.

Berosus mentioned the following dynasties as ruling in Chaldea: Chaldean (Nimrod, Chedorlaomer) dynasty about 2001-1543. Arabian dynasty, about 1543-1298. Dynasty of forty-five kings, about 1298 to 772. Reign of Pul about 772 to 747. Under the third dynasty Chaldea was subordinate to Assyria.

1500-606 (625). Assyrian Empire. About 1500 Assyria became an independent power alongside of the Babylo-

¹ Rawlinson, Manual, p. 28.

nian (Chaldean) empire, whence it seems to have derived its population and its civilization.

For several centuries it was involved in constant warfare with Babylonia and its other neighbors with varying fortune. The chronology falls into three periods. I. 1500 to the capture of Babylon, about 1250. II. 1250 to the accession of Tiglath-Pileser, 746. III. From 745 to the fall of Nineveh, 606 (625). Of the kings of the first period little is known. The second period began with the reign of Tiglathi-Nin (Ninus?). Tiglath-Pileser I., a warlike king, reigned about 1130 and fought in Syria and Babylonia. Historical materials are scanty until 909, then the inscriptions become frequent, full, and exact. It was a time of expansion, conquest, and great activity in architecture, sculpture, and literature. Among the kings may be mentioned:

886-858. Asshur-izir-pal I.² (Sardanapalus). Military expeditions to Zagros, Armenia, Babylonia, Syria. Erection of a palace at Calah. His son,

858-823. Shalmaneser II., fought with Ahab in Syria and subjugated Jehu.

810-781. Vul-lush III. captured Damascus and made Samaria and Philistia tributary. His wife Sammuramit (Semiramis).

A tradition of later growth reported by the Greeks (Diodorus on the authority of Ctesias) connects the establishment of the Assyrian supremacy over almost the whole of western Asia, the building of Nineveh and Babylon, with the names of the king Ninus and his consort Semiramis. Both Ninus (son of the god Bel) and Semiramis (daughter of the goddess Mylitta) are mythical creations, into whose reigns tradition has condensed the deeds of a long series of warlike rulers, so that no achievements were left for their successors, and these from Ninyas down appear as effeminate weaklings. Ninus is unknown to the Assyrian monuments, and Semiramis first appears in the ninth century. On the other hand we know that a goddess answering to Istar-Belit was worshipped in Syria under the name of Semiramis.

Medo-Persian bards seem to have changed the divinities Bel and Istar-Belit into heroes, and have formed the names Ninus and Ninyas from the name of the city Ninua (Nineveh).8

745-727. Tiglath-Pileser II. (identical with the king Pul mentioned in the Bible?) (see p.13) made Babylonia, which was at that time divided into several states, western Iran, Armenia, Syria, Phænicia, Judah and Israel, subject to Assyria.

727-722. Shalmaneser IV. suppressed the revolt of the Phœnician cities and the Kingdom of Israel.

722-705. Sargon (Sarrukin) conquered Samaria and destroyed the Kingdom of Israel (see p. 10). He received tribute from Arabia, Egypt, and Cyprus, suppressed revolts in Armenia, Media, and Babylonia, and united the latter state with Assyria.

1 Rawlinson.

² Formerly called Asshur-idanni-pal. Rawlinson, Five Great Monarchies, II. 246, note 10.

8 Duncker, II. 17. Schrader, Die Keilinschriften, etc. Menant, Annales, etc. Lenormant, Lettres Assyriologiques. Smith, Assyrian Discoveries.

Residence: Dur-Sarrukin, now Khorsabad, not far from Nineveh. His son,

705-681. Sennacherib (Sin-akhi-irib) retained his hold upon Babylonia in spite of repeated insurrections, but was unsuccessful in his wars with Egypt and Judah, and lost the supremacy over Syria. Fleet in the Persian Gulf. Foundation of Tarsus. His son,

681-668. Esarhaddon (Asshur-akh-iddin) suppressed a new revolt of the Babylonians, reconquered Syria, Phœnicia, Cyprus, Judah, and a part of Arabia, and in 672 conquered Egypt from the Ethiopians, entrusting the government to 20 governors, most of whom were natives (see p. 6).

Assyria at the height of her power. One of his sons was made

viceroy of Babylonia, the other,

668-626. Asshur-bani-pal V. (Sardanapalus) defended Egypt, at first with success, against the kings of Ethiopia and native insurrections, but lost it in 653 by the revolt of Psammeticus (see p. 6). On the other hand he strengthened the Assyrian power in Syria, Arabia, Cilicia, as well as in Babylonia, where his brother had revolted, conquered the Kingdom of Elam, and received tribute from Lydia. Erection of magnificent palaces. Foundation of a library at Nineveh. Highest development of Assyrian art. About

640 (650). Revolt of the Medes. Of the Medes little is known until they were attacked by the Assyrians about 830 B. C. About 710 their resistance was broken and their country was soon subjected to Assyria, and so continued until about 640. Phraortes (Fravartis), son of Dejoces (Dahyâvka), a petty

chief among the Medes, revolted but fell in battle.

633. His son Cyaxares (*Úvakhshatara*) continued the struggle, which was, however, soon interrupted by the

632. Irruption of Scythian tribes which had wandered about western Asia, plundering as they went, as far as the borders of Egypt, for 28 years it is said, though 8 is the more probable number. After Cyaxăres had rid the country of them, he made another attack on Assyria, which had been much weakened by the Scythians. For the purpose of destroying the Assyrian kingdom, Cyaxăres allied himself with the Chaldean Nabopolassar (Nabu-habal-usur), Assyrian governor of Babylon since 625, who had made himself independent. Desperate struggle with the Assyrian king Sarakos (Asshur-emid-ilin), 626-625, son of Sardanapalus V. After a long siege,

606 (625? 1) Nineveh was taken and destroyed; as the enemy broke into the city, Sarakos set fire to the royal palace and perished in the flames with his wives and treasurer. End of the Kingdom of Assyria. Nabopolassar united with Baby-

The date is doubtful. Herodotus implies a date as late as 607-600. Berosus (as reported by Abydenus and Polyhistor) gives 625. The former date is advocated by Clinton and Duncker (History of Antiq., III. 266-292), the latter by G. Rawlinson (Five Great Monarchies, II. 391, note 5), and Lenormant (Lettres Assyriologiques, I. § 12, esp. pp. 84, 85.

lonia the whole of northern Mesopotamia on the right bank of the Tigris, the rest falling to the share of *Cyaxăres*, who had already subjugated Armenia and the Iranian portions of the

kingdom of Assyria.

The Grecian story of the effeminate Sardanapalus (Ctesias in Diodorus, II.) is the counterpart of their tales about the masculine Semiramis. According to this story, Sardanapalus, on the fall of the city, burns himself upon a magnificent bier, 400 feet high, which burns for 15 days. This story seems to be an application of the myth of the god who burned himself and rose from the flames, whom the Semitic peoples associated with Istar (Astarte), and whose nature they confounded with hers.²

- 605 (625)-538. (New) Empire of Babylon. After the Assyrian conquest of Babylonia, about 1250 (see p. 14), the latter country continued subject to Assyria, with intervals of independence, until the successful combination of Nabopolassar and Cyaxăres destroyed the power of Assyria. Babylon then took the lead among the nations of the East, rivalled by Media alone.
- 605-561. Nebuchadnezzar (Nabu-kudur-ussur), son of Nabopolassar, during the reign of his father defeated Necho, king of Egypt, at Carchemisch on the Euphrates (605), conquered Syria, destroyed Jerusalem (586), and subdued Tyre (585). Enlargement and adornment of Babylon (on the east bank of the Euphrates). Construction of a bridge over the Euphrates, and of a new palace, with the "hanging gardens" which tradition assigns to Semiramis. Erection of the Median wall from the Euphrates to the Tigris. Magnificent water works. The reservoir at Sippara (Sepharvaim). After Nebuchadnezzar, rapid decline of the dynasty, which became extinct in 555.
- 538. Babylon (last king Nabonētus, or Nabunahid, reigning in conjunction with his son Bel-shar-ussur, the Biblical Belshazzar) taken by Cyrus. Babylon a Persian province.

§ 4. PHŒNICIANS AND CARTHAGINIANS. Semitic.

(Down to the war of the latter with the Romans.)

Geography. Phænicia (Φονίκη, Phænice) is the Grecian name of Canaan (see p. 7), and was derived from the tribal name Φοῖνιξ. In the narrower sense the name denotes the strip of coast, 5–14 miles wide and 150 miles long, which lies N. of the country of the Philistines and the Hebrews and W. of Mt. Lebanon. This strip was inhabited by three tribes: 1. Sidonians, i. e. "fishers" (cities: Sidon, Zor, called by the Greeks Tyros); 2. Arvadites (city: Arvad, in Greek Arados); 3. Giblites (cities: Byblus or Gebal, and Berytos).

Religion of the Phœnicians. The god Baal (Bel, of the Babylo-

¹ For the Median Empire, see p. 25. ² Duncker, II. chapter i.; also III. 265.

⁸ Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. III.

nians) and the goddess Ashera (Baaltis, Belit of the Babylonians), the divinities of life, birth, and the genial forces of nature, were opposed to the god Moloch (i. e. "king," the Babylonian Adar), the devouring and destroying, and yet cleansing fire, also god of war, and the maiden goddess Astarte. Human sacrifices: to Moloch, boys and youths; to Astarte, youths and maidens. Afterwards Baal and Moloch were confused into one divinity, who, under the name of Melkart (i. e. "king of the city"), became the guardian divinity of Tyre. In the same way Ashera and Astarte were united into one divinity, who when represented as a grim wandering goddess vanishing with the changing light of the moon bears the name Dido, but when represented as a kind and gentle divinity newly restored to the knowledge of mankind that of Anna (i. e. "pleasant").

The Political Constitution of the Phœnician cities was an hereditary monarchy, but the royal power was checked by the existence of two senates.

1300. Period of Sidon's greatest power. Favored by the situation of their country, and urged by an energetic industry which led to the invention or development of many arts and manufactures, such as purple dye, weaving, glass-making, mining, work in metals, and architecture, the Phænicians established at an early period, certainly not later than 1500, a carrying trade by land (to Babylonia, Arabia, Assyria, Armenia) as well as by sea, which time only made more extensive.

In close connection with the commerce by sea was the foundation of numerous colonies. Thus in Cyprus were founded Citium, Amathūs, Paphos, the centre of the worship of Ashera, whence originated the Grecian worship of Aphrodīte, that goddess "born of the foam of the sea" (i. e. whose cult came to Greece by sea). Other colonies were founded in Cicilia, Rhodes, Crete, Cythera, as well as on many of the islands of the Ægæan sea, and at points along the coast of Greece; further west, again, colonies were planted in Meltte or Malta, in Sicily (on the southern coast Minoa, Gr. Heraklēa, on the northern coast Solæis (sela = "cliff"), Panormus (Machanath?), at the western end of the island Motye), on Sardinia (Carălis), on the north coast of Africa (two cities of Leptis, Hadrumētum, Utica, the two towns of Hippo), in the country called Tarsis or Tarshīsh, i. e. southern Spain, beyond the columns of Hercules (Straits of Gibraltar), Gadir or Gades, i. e. "walls," "fortress," now Cadiz, founded about 1100.

From this point the Phænicians extended their commercial dealings still further to the western coasts of Africa, and to the Islands of Tin (the Cassiterides), Britain, and the coasts of the German Ocean, where they bought amber which the native tribes obtained by barter from the Baltic.

Mythical representations of these voyages and settlements of the Phœnicians are contained in a series of well-known Grecian tales.

¹ English antiquarians of the present day consider it probable that the Phœnicians never set foot either in the Scilly Isles or in Britain, but received what British tin they did obtain, at second or third hand, from the Celts of Gaul (Veneti?). Tin was found in the river beds of western Gaul. [Trans.]

Story of the rape of Europa (i. e. "the grim"), daughter of Phœnix (i. e. "the Phœnician") from Sidon by Zeus in the form of a bull (whereby is denoted the moon-goddess Dido-Astarte, who flees towards the west). Story of Minos, the son of Zeus and Europa, the powerful ruler of Crete; his wife is Pasiphaë (i. e. "she who shines upon all"). Story of the Minotaur (i. e. Bull of Minos, another conception of Baal-Moloch), shut up in the Labyrinth, to whom Athens had to send human offerings. Dædalus, builder of the Labyrinth in Crete, is the personification of that technical dexterity which the Hellenes acquired from the Phœnicians.

Cadmus, too, who in search of his sister Europa landed in Thera and Thasos, built the Cadmēa in Bœotia, and invented the alphabet, is the mythical representative of Phœnician settlements from which the written alphabet and other elements of eastern civilization were

carried to the Greeks.

1100. Tyre, though younger than Sidon, attained the first rank among the Phœnician sea-board towns.

1001-967. Tyre, at the height of its prosperity, under king Hiram, the contemporary of *David* and *Solomon*, and the latter's friend. Exploring expedition of the Tyrians, accompanied by the servants of Solomon, through the *Red Sea* to the coast of *India* (*Ophir*).

Hiram filled in the space between the island upon which stood the temple of *Melkart*, and *New Tyre* (which was also situated on an island), and erected buildings on the new land. He also narrowed

the strait between New Tyre and Old Tyre, on the main land.

917 (?). Ethbaal (Ithabalus), high priest of Astarte, murdered Phales, the last descendant of Hiram, and made himself king.

About seventy (?) years later, according to a Grecian authority, a grandson of this Ethbaal decreed in his will that his minor son Pygmalion and his sister Elissa should govern Tyre in common under the guardianship of their uncle, the high priest Sicharbaal, who was to marry Elissa. The democratic party deprived Elissa of her share in the government, and Pygmalion, coming of age, murdered Sicharbaal. In consequence of this internal strife, and influenced probably by the unfavorable state of the foreign relations (advance of the Assyrian power towards the Mediterranean, see p. 15), a large part of the older families left Tyre with Elissa. On an excellent site, on the north coast of Africa, they founded about

850.¹ Carthage ² (in Punic, Kathada, i. e. "the new city"), between *Utica* in the W. and the present cape *Bon* in the E., not far from the present *Tunis*. Double harbor. Citadel *Byrsa*. Later the foundress, *Elissa*, became confused with the goddess, *Dido-Astarte*, the protectress of the colony.8

² See Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. VIII.

¹ According to **Timæus**, 814. Concerning the chronology, see **Duncker**, II. 270.

⁸ The credibility of this narrative and the interpretations put upon it, both as regards the chronology and the facts, are contested by O. Meltzer, Gesch. d.

Carthage, so far as it comes within the realm of history, appears to have been an aristocratic republic, with two Sufetes, or judges, frequently called "kings," and compared with the Spartan kings, and two senates, a large and small. Only upon occasion of a disagreement between these branches of the government were the people called upon to give their opinion. The government tended constantly toward the oligarchical form.

850. Decline of the power of the Phænician cities, especially of

Tyre, which was distracted by civil dissension.

The Phœnicians fell repeatedly under the rule of the Assyrians, and, for a time, under that of the Egyptians. After the fall of the Assyrian empire (625, 606), they became dependent upon the Babylonians,

Tyre alone maintaining its freedom until 573.

Favored by the political situation, the Greeks, who had already (about 1000) driven the Phœnicians out of the Ægean Sea, began to extend their influence in the eastern Mediterranean, and, especially after the second half of the eighth century, along the coasts and islands of the western Mediterranean, and in Lower Italy and Sicily (p. 51).

Foundation of Cyrēne (p. 49) and Massalia (about 600), attempted settlements upon Corsica, Sardinia, and the shores of Spain. In short, the Phænician power was threatened with destruction throughout the

entire West.

Brought face to face with this danger, Carthage, which had meantime grown considerably stronger, began about 600 to gather the other Phœnician cities under its control, to subjugate the country around its own commercial stations, and to secure its possession by the establishment of new colonies. The Carthaginians annexed to their territory the African coast from Hippo in the W. to beyond Leptis in the E., and opposed armed resistance to the advancing power of Cyrēne. In the peace which was concluded, the altars of the Philæni, E. of Leptis, were made the boundary. The Carthaginians subjugated Southern Spain and Sardinia, and, with Etruscan aid, drove the Phocæans from Corsica (537?).

586-573. **Tyre** successfully endured a three years' siege, from the land side, by *Nebuchadnezzar*, but was finally forced to ac-

knowledge the supremacy of the king of Babylon.

538. After the destruction of the Babylonian monarchy, by Cyrus, Phœnicia became subject to Persia. The Phœnician cities, however, retained their independence and their native kings. The Phœnicians henceforth furnished the principal part of the Persian fleet. An expedition for the conquest of Carthage, proposed by Cambyses, king of Persia, after the conquest of Egypt, was rendered impossible of execution by the refusal of the Phœnicians to fight against their colony.

During the Persian supremacy, Sidon was again the first city of Phœnicia. The Carthaginians, favored by the civil dissensions of the

Karthager, Bd. I., 1879, who admits the truth of these statements only: that Carthage was a Tyrian prony, and was certainly founded before the eighth century.

Greeks in Sicily, and by the Persian war with Greece, attacked the Greek colonies in Sicily (being secretly in alliance with Xerxes?)

480. War of the Carthaginians, in alliance with Selinus, against the other Greek cities in Sicily.

The Carthaginian army under Hamiltar was utterly defeated and scattered at Himera by the tyrants Gelon of Syracuse (Συράκουσαι) and Theron of Agrigentum (᾿Ακράγας).

The Carthaginians purchased peace for 2000 talents, thereby sav-

ing their Sicilian cities, Panormus, Solæis, Motye.

409-339. Repeated wars between the Carthaginians and Greeks in Sicily.

The Carthaginians, called in to assist Segesta ($^*E_{\gamma \in \sigma \tau a}$) against Selinūs, after conquering Selinūs, Himera, Agrigentum, and Gela, secured the supremacy over the western half of Sicily, a position which they maintained against all attempts of the tyrant Dionysius I. and Timoleon, who restored republican liberty to the Grecian cities, to dislodge them.

332. Capture of the island city, New Tyre, by Alexander the Great after a seven months' siege.

Phœnicia became a part of the great Græco-Macedonian monarchy, and later a part of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, and for a time of that of the Ptolemies.

317-275. New wars between the Carthaginians and Greeks in Sicily.

Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, sought to bring all Sicily under his rule. The Carthaginians despoiled him of his conquests and besieged Syracuse. Agathocles effected a landing in Africa (310), and overran a large part of the Carthaginian territory, while the Syracusans repulsed and annihilated the Carthaginian army under the walls of Syracuse. Agathocles returned to Sicily; his army, which he left before Carthage, was destroyed. In the peace with Syracuse the Carthaginians regained their former possessions in Sicily (306).

After the death of Agathŏcles, party broils in Syracuse favored the advance of the Carthaginian power. *Pyrrhus* of Epirus, then in Tarentum, was called to the aid of the Syracusans (278). He was at first successful, but offending most of the Grecian cities by his severity, they took sides with the Carthaginians, and Pyrrhus was forced to leave Sicily. On the voyage back to Italy he was defeated by a

Carthaginian fleet (276).

§ 5. LYDIANS AND PHRYGIANS.

Lydians. Semitic.

Geography: Lydia, in the strict sense, or Mæonia, was the middle one of the three divisions of Asia Minor lying on the Ægæan Sea, the northern being Mysia, the southern Caria. Rivers: Hermus, Caystrus,

Pactolus (golden-sand) in Lydia; Mæander in Caria. Capital of Lydia: Sardes at the base of the Tmolus range. The Lydians belonged to the Semitic race, like the Cilicians, and probably the Carians, whereas the other peoples of Asia Minor were in all likelihood Aryans.

The kingdom of Lydia at the period of its greatest extent reached to the Halys river (now the Kisil Irmak), and included, beside the countries mentioned above, Bithynia and Paphlagonia on the Pontus

Euxinus (Black Sea), and the inland country of Phrygia.

Religion: Worship of the sun-god Sandon, and the goddesses Bla (Mylitta-Ashera) and Ma (Astarte). The last two became united in one goddess, under the name "the great mother" (Cybele), who

was worshipped in Ephesus as Artemis (Diana).

Chronology: Lydia was ruled by two successive mythical dynasties, the Attyadæ from Attys, son of the god Manes (prior to 1229), and the Sandonidæ, who traced their origin to the god Sandon (1229–724). The Greeks saw in this latter divinity their Heracles, and called this dynasty, therefore, the Heraclidæ. The last king of this line, Candaules, was murdered (689¹) by his favorite Gyges in collusion with the king's consort. With Gyges the

689 2-549 (?). Dynasty of the Mermnadæ came to the throne. Under these sovereigns the Lydian kingdom, after suffering severely from the Cimmerians, and being at times subject to Assyria, grew in power and extent. Gyges himself extended his sway over Mysia and to the Hellespont. His two successors conquered Phrygia, and carried on an unsuccessful war with the Grecian cities on the sea coast.

Alyattes, the fourth of the Mermnadæ, warred with Cyaxăres, king of Media, with success.

of the sun predicted by Thales of Miletus. In the treaty of peace the Halys was made the boundary between the Lydian and Median kingdoms. The daughter of Alyattes was given in marriage to Astyages, son of Cyaxăres. Alyattes subdued Bithynia and Paphlagonia in the north, Caria in the south, took Smyrna and Colophon, but failed to subdue the remaining coast towns. A vast treasure collected in the royal palace at Sardes. Magnificent buildings. Ruins of royal tombs north of Sardes.

563-549 (?). Crosus, Son of Alyattes,

captured Ephesus, and afterwards subdued all the Grecian cities of the coast, Ionian, Æolian, and Dorian, with the exception of Miletus, with which he formed a league. Active intercourse with European Greece. Solon, of Athens, visited Sardes. After the deposition of his brother-in-law Astyages, of Media, by Cyrus the Persian, Crasus attacked the Persian empire. Following the ambiguous advice of the Delphic oracle he crossed the Halys. Indecisive battle between Crasus and Cyrus at Pteria. Crasus returned

¹ Eusebius, 699; Herodotus, 719.

² Duncker, Hist. of Antiq., III. 414, note 2.

irresolutely to Sardes, whither he was followed by Cyrus, who defeated him in a second battle, captured Sardes, and took Cræsus prisoner (see p. 26).

549 (?). Fall of the kingdom of Lydia, which was united with the Persian empire.

Phrygians.

750, or earlier, an independent monarchy was formed in N. W. Phrygia, having its capital at *Gordiæum*. Its monarchs, the dates of whose reigns are uncertain, bore the names of *Gordias* and *Midas* alternately. A *Midas* contemporary with Alyattes (about 600-570), and a *Gordias* with Cræsus (570-560). Phrygia conquered by Lydia about 560. (Rawlinson.)

§ 6. INDIANS. Aryan.

Geography: India, the central peninsula of the three which project from the southern coast of Asia into the Indian Ocean, is a vast triangle, having a base and a height of about 1900 miles, bounded on the N. by the Himalaya Mountains, on the E. by the Bay of Bengal, on the W. by the Gulf of Arabia. It falls into three geographical divisions: I. The region of the Himalayas. The central range forms an almost impassable barrier between India and the Mongol tribes of central Asia (Mt. Everest, 29,000 ft.). On the E. this region is separated from Burmah by the lower ranges of the Nágá, Patkoi, and Yomas (Aeng Pass), which are pierced by the Brahmaputra. On the W. the Sufed Koh, Suláimán, and the Hálás separate India from Afghánistán and Baluchistán, but are pierced by the *Indus* River, the *Khaibar Pass* (3373 ft.), and the Bolán Pass (5800 ft.). This region includes Nepal and Kashmir. II. The fertile valley of the great rivers, which receives the drainage of the northern as well as of the southern slopes of the Himalayas. River systems: Indus, Sutlej (provinces of Punjab, i. e. the five streams, 1 Sindh); Ganges (provinces of Bengal, Oudh, Rájputána; cities: Calcutta, Benares, Delhi, Allahabad); Bramaputra (province of Assam). Deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. III. The Deccan, or southern plateau, separated from the Ganges valley by the Vindhyá mountains (5000 ft.), and bordered by the East Gháts (1500 ft.) and West Gháts (3000 ft.). Rivers: Godávari, Krishna, Káveri, all flowing through the East Ghats into the Bay of Bengal. Provinces: Madras, Bombay, Mysore, etc.

Religion: The religion of the early Indians, as portrayed in the Vedic hymns, was a worship of Nature: Dyaush-pitar, Father of Heaven; Varuna, the sky; Indra, the rain-vapor; Agni, fire; Maruts, gods of the storm. After the settlement in the Ganges valley, this

primitive faith underwent a change.

History: The Indians (*Hindus*) migrating from the northwest, came at first to the valley of the *Indus* and the *Punjab*, and thence slowly pushed their settlements down the valley of the Ganges,

¹ Indus, Ihelum, Chenab, Ravi, Sutlej (modern names).

where they were probably established as early as 1500 B.C. native tribes whom they found in the country they either enslaved or pushed into the Himalayas on the N., and on to the Deccan in the S. (Dravidians). At a later date the Hindus spread along the coasts of the Deccan and reached Ceylon.

Foundation of numerous despotic kingdoms. In the conquered district strict separation of the Aryan conquerors from the subjugated Development of the royal power and of the priestly influence. Four principal castes: Brahmans, priests; Kshattriyas, warriors; Vaisyas, agricultural settlers. These three were of pure Aryan descent. The **Súdras**, or servile caste, were of aboriginal descent, the *Dásás*, "slaves." Transformation of the ancient faith into the religion of Brahma: Brahma, the creator; Vishnu, the preserver; Siva, the destroyer and restorer. Spiritual tyranny of the Brahmans, accompanied by a high development of philosophy, grammar, etc., by the Brahmans, in connection with the explanation of the Vedas ("revelations"), or services for the various religious ceremonials: Rig-Veda, the simplest form; Sama-Veda; Yayur-Veda (black and white), Atharva-Veda. To these were in time attached prose treatises composed by the priests and called the Brahmanas, one being attached to each Veda. A second series of additions were the Sutrás ("sacred traditions"). Poetry, the epics: Maha-bhârata, Ramâyana. Regulation of the entire thought and life in accordance with strict prescriptions, which were afterwards (about 600?) gathered together into the book of the laws of Manu, being, as it was claimed, a divine revelation to him, the tribal ancestor of the whole race. Complicated system of rites and ceremonies. Prescriptions concerning cleanliness. Terrors of the doctrine of the second birth.

Magnificent monuments of Indian architecture, especially the Cliff Temples, which were excavated in the rock, both upon and be-

low the surface of the earth. Later, Pagodas.

In the sixth century, appearance of the reformer Buddha, i. e. "the enlightened" (623 to 543), properly Gautama, afterwards Siddhartha (i. e. "he who has fulfilled his end"), son of king Sud-Buddhism, called after its founder, was originally a philosophical system, without creed or rites, having for its object the attainment of moral perfection. Through its doctrine of the essential equality of all men, it was directly opposed to Brahmanism.

The progress of Buddhism produced, along with certain changes in the old system, a strong Brahmanistic reaction. The war of the religions ended with the expulsion of Buddhism from India. It maintained itself in Kashmir and Ceylon only, but the loss was offset by great gains in central and eastern Asia, where it has to-day over 300,000,000 devotees in *Thibet*, *China*, *Japan*, etc.

327. Invasion of the Punjab by Alexander the Great (p. 75).

Formation of great empires of short duration (empire of Magadha, under Chandra-gupta (Greek, Sandra-kottos), and his grandson,

263-226 (?). Acoka, the friend of Buddhism. After the reign of Açoka the Punjab fell under the supremacy of the Græco-Bactrian empire in central Asia, and thus some tincture of Greek civilization was imparted to this part of India. The Bactrian rulers were finally expelled by Scythian invaders, several dynasties of whom appear to have reigned in the *Punjab* and along the *Ganges*. Wars of the native prince *Vikramaditya* against the Scythians (57 B. c.). *Kanishka*, Gr. *Kanerke*, was the founder of the last dynasty of Scythian kings, who were succeeded by an unknown people, the *Guptas*. Another branch of the Indo-Scythians making their way down the Indus came into conflict with the *Guptas*, and with a general league of the Hindus of the south. In the

78 A. D. (?) Battle of Kahror the invaders were utterly defeated and are henceforward not mentioned.

The Guptas reigned in Oudh and northern India until they were overthrown by foreign invaders (Tatars?) in the latter half of the fifth century A. D.

§ 7. BACTRIANS, MEDES, PERSIANS. Aryan.

Geography: The Bactrians, Medes, and Persians inhabited the plateau of Iran, between the Suláimán range on the E. and the valley of the Euphrates and Tigris on the W., between the Caspian Sea on the N., and the Erythræan Sea (Indian Ocean) on the S. On the western border of this highland: Media (Ecbatana, Med. Hangamatana, i. e. "place of assemblies"); on the southern border along the Persian Gulf, Persis (Pasargădæ, Persepòlis), Carmania; on the Erythræan sea, Gedrosia; on the eastern border, Arachosia, the land of the Paropanisădæ, at the foot of the Paropanisus (Hindu Koosh); on the northern border, Bactria or Bactriana (Baktra), Parthia and Hyrcania on the Caspian Sea; in the centre, Aria and Drangiana; between the Oxus and the Jaxartes, Bogdiana (Maracanda).

East of the lower course of the Tigris, in the lowlands: Susiana (the ancient Elam) with Susa, the principal residence of the Persian kings. Within this broad plateau, a widely accepted theory locates the primeval home of the Aryan or Indo-European or Japhetic race, from which in prehistoric times successive colonies wandered away to the south and west.

About 1000 (?). Zoroaster (Zarathustra) whose doctrine, a spiritual reform of the old Iranic superstitions, was contained in the 21 (?) books of the Avesta, of which one only has come down to us: the Vendidad, i. e. "delivered against the Daëva," the bad spirits. The pith of the doctrine as set forth in the Avesta is the conception of a continuous warfare of the good spirits, whose leader was the good god Ahuramazda or Auramazda (in modern Persian Ormuzd), and the evil spirits, or Daëva, whose leader was Angromainyu, in modern Persian Ahriman), over the life and death, welfare or in-

¹ Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. II.

² Kiepert, Manual of Ancient Geography, p. 39.

⁸ Avesta is the law itself, Zend the later commentary on the law; hence Zend-avesta, and the expressions Zend-language, Zend-people.

jury, of man and his soul after death. In this new doctrine Mithra the sun-god, originally the highest of the Iranian gods, appeared as a creature of the creator Ahuramazda, but nevertheless the equal of the latter in dignity and divinity. Worship of fire, whose blaze scared away the evil spirits of the night; reverence paid to water, and the fertile earth, the daughter of Ahuramazda. The priests, called Athrava (from athaô, fire), by the Bactrians, and Magians (Maghush) by the Medes, formed a distinct hereditary class; an institution which was copied by the ancient priestly families of Persia, after the general acceptance in that country of the reformed faith, which came to them from Bactria, through Media.

About 1100. Formation of a powerful Empire in Bactria, mythical reminiscences of the deeds of whose kings are perhaps contained in the Shahnameh of the poet Firdusi (about 1000 A. D.).

As early as the ninth century, the Assyrians undertook expeditions against the plateau of Iran, and in the middle of the eighth century, the western portion of this plateau, Media, and Persia, became permanently subject to Assyria.

640. Revolt of the Medes from the Assyrians.

640–558. Median Empire.

The first prince of a Median dynasty mentioned was

708-655. Dejŏces (Δηϊόκης, old Pers. Dahyauka), to whom is ascribed the foundation of the capital Echatana. He does not appear, however, to have reigned over the whole of Media, or to have been independent, but rather to have continued to pay tribute to the Assyrians. His son,

655-633. Phraortes (Φραόρτης, Pers. Fravartis), was the first who united the whole country under one ruler and established the independence of Media. He made the Persians tributary, although their native ruler Achæmĕnes (Hakhamanis), who was raised to the throne after the revolt of the Persians from Assyria, retained his crown under Median supremacy, and bequeathed it to his descendants.

After Phraortes had fallen fighting against the Assyrians (p. 15) his agai

15) his son,

633-593. Cyaxares (Kvasdons, Pers. Uvahksathra) succeeded him and continued the war with Assyria successfully. Inroad of the Scythians. After their departure (about 626? see p. 15), Cyaxares subjugated Armenia. War with Alyattes king of Ludic (p. 21)

Lydia (p. 21).

606 (625?). Cyaxăres, in alliance with Nabopolassar of Babylonia, captured Nineveh and destroyed the Empire of Assyria (p. 15), whose territory on the left shore of the Tigris fell to the Medians. He also conquered eastern Iran. Media at the death of Cyaxăres was the most powerful monarchy of Asia. His son,

593-558. Astyages ('Αστυάγης), last king of the Medes. Cyrus, of

the family of the Achæmenidæ in the Persian tribe of the Pasargadæ, which reigned in Persia under Median supremacy, deposed Astyages. The supremacy passed (558) from the Medes to the Persians.

Herodotus (I. 107, etc.) reports a tradition of the Median descent of Cyrus through his mother Mandăne, daughter of Astyăges, which is adorned after the Oriental manner, with the dream of Astyăges, the interpretation of the Magi, the exposure, miraculous rescue and recognition of the boy Cyrus, the cruel punishment of Harpăgus, his treachery, etc. This story is evidently an invention of the Medes, who would not admit that they were conquered by a stranger.

According to Ctesias, the daughter of Astyages was named Amytis, and was the wife of a Mede, Spitamas. After the deposition of

Astyages and execution of Spitamas, Cyrus made her his consort.

558-330. Persian Empire founded by

558–529. Cyrus ($K\hat{v}\rho os$, Pers. Kurus).

Cyrus strengthened the Persian power over those peoples of Iran which were formerly subjects to the Medes, and over the Armenians and Cappadocians. War against Cræsus of Lydia (p. 21). After the indecisive battle of Pteria (554?), Cyrus advanced on Sardes, defeated Cræsus in a second battle on the Hermus, stormed Sardes, captured Cræsus, and deprived him of his kingdom, but otherwise treated him as a friend and adviser (554).1

The Grecian story told by Herodotus (I. 86) of Cyrus' intention to burn Crœsus, who, on the pyre, calls to mind his interview with Solon, of his consequent pardon by Cyrus, and the miraculous quenching of the flames by the Delphic Apollo, who had formerly received valuable presents from Crœsus, betrays a purpose of bringing Grecian wisdom into strong relief (proverb of Solon, that no mortal is to be called fortunate before death), and of vindicating the Grecian god. It is inconsistent with the command of the Persian faith, not to contaminate the sacred fire. Probably Crœsus wished to appease the anger of the gods against his people and country, according to Semitic usage, by burning himself; according to the Lydian story, the sun-god Sandon does not accept the offering, but puts out the flames with rain.

Cyrus returned to Echatana. A revolt of the Lydians was quickly repressed. *Mazăres* and *Harpăgus* made the Grecian coast cities tributary to the Persians. A portion of the *Phocæans* migrated to *Corsica*; driven thence (see. p. 19) they went to *Elea* (*Velia*) in southern Italy. Harpăgus conquered *Caria* and *Lycia*.

539-538. War of Cyrus against the Babylonians. After a siege of nearly two years (diversion of the Euphrates)

Babylon was captured. The Babylonian Empire was incorporated with the Persian; the Phænicians and Cilicians

¹ The date of the fall of Sardes is disputed. Duncker (Book viii., chap. 6), gives 549.

retained their native rulers under Persian supremacy; the Jews were sent from Babylon back to Palestine (p. 11).

- Cyrus, who was occupied during the last nine years of his **529.** reign with wars against the eastern peoples, fell in one of these expeditions. The story of his death, like that of his birth, has been poetically adorned and variously related. According to one tradition, probably of Median origin (Herodotus, I. 202-214), Cyrus fell in battle against Tomyris, the queen of the Massagetæ, whose son he had overcome by deceit. She thrust the dissevered head of the Persian monarch into a skinbag of blood that he might "drink his fill of blood." According to Ctesias, Cyrus died, on the fourth day, of a wound which he received in a victory over the Derbices. and successor of Cyrus,
- Cambyses (Καμβύσης, Pers. Kambujiya), con-*5*29–*5*22. quered Egypt by his victory at Pelusium (p. 7).
- 525.1 Capture of Memphis. Expedition up the Nile toward Æthiopia; failure of provisions in the desert compelled him to turn back. The tyrant of Cyrene acknowledged the supremacy of Cambyses, but a projected attack upon Carthage by sea was prevented by the refusal of the *Phænicians* to lend their ships (p. 19). Destruction of the army corps dispatched against the temple of Jupiter Ammon (Oasis Sivah).

Cambyses slaughtered the bull Apis in Memphis 2 (?), and manifested in all ways a choleric and bloodthirsty disposition. On the way back from Egypt, he died in Syria, either from an accidental wound, or by his own hand. A Magus seized the sceptre and pro-

claimed himself the brother of Cambyses,

Bardija (Gr. Σμέρδις), who had been murdered at Cambyses' **522.** command. After a short reign the usurper was put to death by the princes of the seven Persian tribes, the most influential of whom,

Darius ($\Delta a \rho \epsilon \hat{los}$, Pers. Darayavus), son of Hys-*5*21–485. taspes (Vistaçpa), was made king.

The father of Darius, Hystaspes, was the head of the younger line of the Achæmenidæ (the elder became extinct with Cambyses and Bardija) and the rightful heir to the Persian throne. The son, Darius, however, was recognized by the other princes as king. Later his accession was ratified by the production of auguries. (Anecdote of the neighing horse in *Herodotus*, III. 85.)

Revolt of the Babylonians. The city of Babylon recaptured only after a siege of more than 20 months. (Self-mutilation of Zopyrus,

in order to deceive the Babylonians.)

508 (?). Afterwards Darius suppressed revolts which had broken out in other parts of the empire (in Media, Persia, Parthia, etc.), and conquered the right bank of the *Indus*.

1 According to Brugsch, 527.

² See on this point Brugsch, Hist. of Egypt, II. 289 ff., who, by the genealogy of the Api, showed the improbability of the story.

513 (?). Unsuccessful expedition of Darius against the Scythians with a land force of 700,000 men. The fleet of the Greeks of Asia Minor was conducted by the tyrants of the Ionian cities. Bridge of boats across the Bosphorus. Bridge over the Ister (Danube). After an aimless advance, lack of provisions induced a retreat (Herodotus, IV. 130 seq.). Darius rescued by the faithfulness of Histiaus of Miletus (against the advice of Miltiades of Athens, tyrant in the Chersonese). Thracia made subject to Persia. Cyrene conquered by a force sent from Egypt.

Susa, in Susiana, since the time of Darius the principal residence of the "Great King" (βασιλεύς τῶν βασιλέων, μέγας βασιλεύς, Pers. Khshayathiya-Khshayathiyanâm, whence the modern Persian Shahinshah). Echatana in Media was the summer residence. Erection of a new royal palace at Persepolis in Persis, where ruins with inscriptions and sculptures have been discovered, as well as at Susa.

Persepolis, too, the tombs of the kings.

Divine worship paid to the king, the satisfaction of whose wants was the final purpose of the state. Maintenance of a costly court, with an elaborate ceremonial. Construction of great military roads. Completion of the canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, which Ramessu II. had begun and Neku had continued (p. 5). Establishment of postal stations, of course only for the carriage of royal messages. Division of the empire into 20 (?) satrapies, each under a satrap (Persian Khshatra-pati, i. e. "lord of the province"), with regal accommodation in palaces surrounded by extensive gardens (Para-Subject cities or tribes, and indeed whole nations, enjoyed their own laws and separate administration, under native though dependent princes.

500-494. Revolt of the Ionian Greeks, incited by Histiœus of Miletus, who had been accused to Darius and summoned to Susa, and his son-in-law Aristagoras. With the assistance of Athens and Eretria, Sardes was captured and burned. The Ionians, defeated by the Persian army, were abandoned by their allies from Athens and Eretria; their fleet was defeated at Lode, opposite Miletus. The Ionians were again reduced to subjection, and the Milesians, by command of Darius, were settled about the mouth of the Tigris.

War of Darius against the European Greeks (p. 56). Great preparations for a new expedition against Greece.

volt among the Egyptians.

Death of Darius. He was succeeded by his son,

Xerxes I. (Ξέρξης, Pers. Khshayarsha). **485–465.**

War against Greece (p. 58). Xerxes and his eldest son murdered by Artabanus, captain of the body-guard. The second son of Xerxes,

Artaxerxes I. (Pers. Artachshatra), called Μακρόχειρ, Lon-

gimănus, succeeded to the throne.

462-455. Second revolt of the Egyptians under Inăros, assisted by

the Athenians, suppressed by the satrap Megabyzus (Amyrtæus alone maintained himself about the mouths of the Nile). Wars with the Greeks (p. 63). Beginning of the internal decay of the Persian empire. Revolts of the satraps. Mercenary troops. The son of Artaxerxes,

424. Xerxes II., after ruling one month and a half, was murdered,

by his brother,

Sogdianus, who after six and a half months, was murdered by his brother *Ochus*, who reigned under the name

424-405. Darius II., Nothus. He was under the influence of his wife Parysătis. Third revolt of the Egyptians, who maintained their independence for sixty years (414-354).

405-362. Artaxerxes II., Mnemon. Revolt of his brother, the younger Cyrus, who, assisted by Grecian mercenaries, attacked the king in the neighborhood of Babylon.

401. Cyrus fell in the battle of Cunaxa in personal combat with his brother.

400. Retreat of the 10,000 Greeks, Xenophon (Anabăsis).

362-338. Artaxerxes III. Revolt of the Phænicians and Egyptians suppressed. Artaxerxes poisoned by his favorite, the Egyptian Bagoas, who placed on the throne the king's youngest son,

338-336. Arses, whom he likewise murdered, in order to put a great-

grandson of Darius Nothus in his place.

336-330. Darius III., Codomannus. Bagoas executed by poison. War with Alexander of Macedonia; Darius murdered by the satrap Bessus while fleeing, after the battle of Gaugamela (331).

330. Destruction of the Persian Empire. See Grecian history,

4th period, p. 74.

§ 8. PARTHIANS.1 Turanian ? 2

Geography: The Parthian empire extended from the Euphrates to the Indus, from the Caspian Sea and the Araxes to the Indian Ocean, covering nearly the same ground, and having in the main the same divisions, as the Persian empire, of which it was, indeed, in many ways an avowed imitation. Parthia proper, the region between the Jaxartes, and the desert of Iran, the Caspian Sea and the province of Aria, was a satrapy of the Persian empire. About

255. The Parthians revolted under the lead of Arsaces, the chief of a tribe of the Dahæ (Scythians). The revolt succeeding,

255(?)-253. Arsaces I. was raised to the throne. He was succeeded by his brother *Tiridates* as

253-216. Arsaces II., who firmly established the independence of Parthia. His son,

216-196. Arsaces III., successfully resisted Antiochus the Great.

Arsaces IV. (Priapatius) and Arsaces V. (Phraates I.) accomplished but little of importance. The son of the latter,

1 Rawlinson.

² The use of this name must not be understood as implying belief in the racial unity of all the peoples to whom it is applied. It denotes merely the mass of Asiatics who belonged neither to the Semitic nor to the Aryan family.

- 174-136. Mithridates I., founded the Empire of the Parthians, extending his sway over *Media*, *Susiana*, *Persia*, *Babylonia*, *Bactria*. Subject nations were permitted to retain their native kings in subjection to Parthia. The Parthian civilization was rude and of a low order.
- 136-127. Phraates II. (Arsaces VII.) repressed a revolt of Babylonia, but fell fighting against the Turanians. The incursions of these nomadic tribes became more frequent under Artabanus (Arsaces VIII.), 127-124, who likewise fell in battle against them. They were, however, effectually checked by Mithridates II. (Arsaces IX.), 124-87, who also extended the power of Parthia in other directions, until towards the close of his reign he was defeated by Tigranes of Armenia. Under Phraates III. (Arsaces XII.), 69-60, the Parthians first became embroiled with Rome, war with this power breaking out in 54. Under Orodes I. (Arsaces XIV.), 54-37, Expedition of Crassus (p. 140). Expedition of Antonius, 36, against Phraates IV. (Arsaces XV.). From 37 B. C. to 107 A. D. Parthia was ruled by a series of ten monarchs, whose reigns were mostly occupied with family broils and struggles for the succession. An attempt made by

107-121 A. D. Chosroës (Arsaces XXV.) to recover Armenia brought about the successful Parthian expedition of Trajan, whose conquests were, however, abandoned as soon as made. Vologeses III. (Arsaces XXVII.), 149-192 A. D., became involved in a war with M. Aurelius, which terminated in the complete submission of the Parthian. His successor, Vologeses

IV., 192-213 A. D., lost northern Assyria to Rome.

215-226 A. D. Artabanus III. (Arsaces XXX.), last king of Parthia. In his reign Parthia suffered severely at the hands of Caracalla, but, after his death and the defeat of Macrinus, had regained its former power, when the empire was brought to an end by the success of an insurrection of the Persians under Artaxerxes, son of Sassan, who defeated and slew the Parthian monarch. The Tatar empire was replaced by the Aryan kingdom of the Sassanidæ, or the New Persian Empire (226-652 A. D. (p. 187).

§ 9. CHINESE. Turanian.

Geography: China in the broad sense, or the Chinese Empire, embracing Manchuria, Mongolia, and Tibet, as well as China proper, is bounded N. by Asiatic Russia, E. by the Sea of Japan, the Yellow Sea, and the Sea of China, S. and S. W. by the Sea of China, Cochin China, Burmah, W. by Kashmir and East Turkestan. China (land of the Seres among the ancients, Cathay in the Middle Age), comprises less than half of the Chinese empire, being about 1474 miles long by 1355 wide. Vast alluvial plain and delta in the N. E. Mountainous and hilly in south. Rivers: Hwang-ho (Yellow River); Yang-tsze-Keang; Se-keang. Provinces: 1, Chih-li (or Pe-chih-li), with Peking,

the capital of the empire; 2, Keang-soo, the most populous and best watered of the provinces, with the cities, Nan-king, Shang-hai; 3, Gan-hwuy; 4, Keang-se; 5, Chĕ-keang, with the city Ning-po; 6, Fuh-keen, comprising the island of Formosa (Taiwan); 7, Hoo-pih; 8, Hoo-nan; 9, Ho-nan; 10, Shan-tung with the Tai-shan mountain; 11, Shan-se; 12, Shen-se; 13, Kan-suh; 14, Sze-chuen; 15, Kwang-tung, with the cities, Canton, Macao, Hong-Kong (properly Hiang-kiang); 16, Kwang-

se; 17, Yun-nan; 18, Kwei-chow; 19, Shing-kiang.

Religion: Uncertainty concerning the oldest religion of the Chinese. By some writers it is considered little higher than fetichism, while others see a monotheistic belief in the worship of $T\hat{\imath}$. religion embraced a worship of ancestors, of deified rulers, and of spirits generally, classed in antitheses of opposing qualities (yang and yin), heaven and earth, male and female, from whose interaction all created beings sprang. Ideas of future life indistinct, no system of rewards and punishments. System of offerings; never human sac-In the fifth century B. c. appeared the philosopher Confucius (K'ung-foo-tsze, 551-478), who taught no new theology, and did not remodel the old religion, but whose ethical code and personal influence secured for him an enthusiastic following. It was a revival, rather than a reformation, of the ancient faith. Enunciation of the Golden Rule. Contemporary with Confucius was Lâo-tsze, the author of a system of ethical philosophy, Taoism, the "way or method of living which men should cultivate as the highest and purest development of their nature" (Legge). At a later time there grew up a system of gross and mystical superstition, which took the name of Tâoism, deified Lâo-tsze, and became one of the recognized religions of the empire. Buddhism introduced into China about A. D. 65, where it has degenerated into a low superstition, but still numbers many devotees and has deeply affected the older religions. Begging priests. Mohammedanism has also its adherents. The common religion of the lower classes is the old ancestor and spirit worship, complicated by the introduction of elements from all the sects above mentioned. No state religion; toleration of all faiths.

Chronology. The Chinese regard themselves as aborigines. Foreign scholars derive them from wandering bands of Tatars, or from the peoples of *Tibet* and *Farther India*. It is probable that the first

settlements were made in the valley of the Hwang-ho.

The Chinese possess an intricate system of chronology which earlier writers trusted almost implicitly, but which modern scholars have severely criticised. The dates assigned before 800 B. C. are probably wholly untrustworthy. Chinese annalists place the creation between two and three millions of years before Confucius, and divide the intervening space into ten epochs. In the eighth of these are placed the famous emperors Yew-chaou-She ("nest builder"), Suy-jin-She, the discoverer of fire, Fuhi, Chin-nung, inventor of the plough, and Yaou, who first drained the valley of Hwang-ho. These sovereigns are to be regarded as largely mythical, as are the dynasties of Hia (2205–1766) and Shang (1766–1123).

- 1123-255. Chow Dynasty. During the time of this dynasty we reach historic ground. Development of a feudal system. The imperial domain lay in the middle of the empire, whence the name applied to the empire, "Middle Kingdom." Under Sing-wang, birth of Confucius, 551 B. C.
- 255-206. Dynasty of Tsin, famous for the energetic monarch Ché-wang-te (246-210), who extended the empire to the sea, defeated the Mongols, built the Chinese Wall (1400 miles long, 15-30 feet high, 15-25 feet broad); 213, Chéwang-te ordered the destruction of many thousand historical and philosophical books.
- 206 B. C.-221 A. D. Dynasties of East and West Han. Brilliant period of Chinese history. The power of the feudal lords limited, the empire consolidated and strengthened, and extended westward to Russian Turkestan. Conquest of northern Corea (109 A. D.). Annexation of Hainan. This period was succeeded by one of great confusion.
- 221-265 A. D. Epoch of the Three Kingdoms: Wei, in the north; Wu, in the east; and Shuh, in the west. Wuti, 265 A. D., reunited a large part of the empire and founded the dynasty of Tsin, but the country soon relapsed into a divided state, which continued until
- 590 A. D. Yang-Kian, prince of Suy, in the northern kingdom of Wei, extending his conquests southward, united the whole empire under his sceptre and founded the dynasty of Suy.

§ 10. JAPANESE. Turanian.

Geography: The Japanese 1 empire, Dai Nippon, is a chain of islands which skirts the eastern coast of Asia opposite Corea, Manchuria, and Amur. It comprises four large islands: Kiushiu; Shiko-kü; Hondo, 2 or Honshiu, the principal island; Yezo; and some three thousand small islands. 8 Nature of the country, rocky, mountainous, volcanic. Highest mountain, Fusiyama (12,000 ft.), in the centre of the east coast of Hondo. Rivers numerous but small; among the largest: Tone-gawa, Shinano-gawa, Kwā-gawa, Ti-gawa. Lake Biwa in Hondo. Principal cities: Kioto, Yedo, or Tokio, Yokohama, Osaka.

Religion: The most ancient religion of Japan bears the native name of *Kami-no-michi*, "the way of the gods," but is better known abroad by the Chinese term *Shintō*. It consisted of a theology which comprised the gods of heaven, the mikados, many deified mortals, ani-

¹ Japan (Zipangu in the Middle Age) is a name given to the empire by foreigners. It is probably of Chinese origin.

8 Saghalin was given to Russia in 1875 in exchange for the Kurile islands.

² This is the name recently applied to the main island by the Japanese government; previously the Japanese had no name for this island. *Nippon*, the name frequently given it by foreigners, is the name of the whole empire.

mals, plants, and natural objects, and of a ritual for the worship of these deities. The chief command of the religion was implicit obedience to the gods, especially to the mikado. It had no moral code. It was emphatically a state religion, and was often used as a political engine. In 552 A. D. Buddhism was introduced into Japan, where it spread rapidly. Development of a score or more of sects. (Among others *Shin-shu*, which teaches salvation by faith in Buddha.) Buddhism for a time overshadowed the older religion, but the present government has fully reinstated the *Shintō* faith.

Chronology: The origin of the Japanese is uncertain. They invaded the islands from Asia, and conquered them from the savage Ainos, whom they found there. The present Japanese are certainly

a mixed race, containing Turanian and Malay elements.

While the mythical history of Japan comprises a dynasty of gods, followed by a dynasty of rulers descended from the sun-goddess, and who are sometimes assigned reigns of hundreds of thousands of years each, the earliest date of what is believed in Japan to be authentic history is 660 B. C.; the dates are probably untrustworthy until much later.

- the 5th in descent from the sun-goddess. He was leader of the invasion, and conquered Kiushiu, Shihoku, and a part of the main island. Jimmu is regarded by many foreign scholars as a mythical character. He was the founder of an unbroken dynasty, of which the reigning mikado, Mutsu-Hito, is the 122d (123d counting Jingu) sovereign. The 10th mikado, Sujin (97-30 B. C.) introduced reforms, reorganized the administration of the empire and generally advanced the civilization of the people. Intercourse opened with Corea. Succeeding emperors continued the war with the native Ainos, who were pushed further and further to the north. Especially famous is the reign of the 12th mikado,
- 71-130 A. D. Keiko, whose more famous son, Yamato-Dake, "the warlike," conquered the great eastern plain, the Koantō. The 14th mikado, Chinai, dying suddenly, was succeeded by his wife the renowned
- 201-269 A. D. Jingu-Kogo, sometimes called the 15th mikado, although never formally crowned. She suppressed a rebellion in *Kiushiu*, and herself led an army to *Corea*, which she reduced to submission. Diplomatic relations with China. Her son and successor,
- 270-310 A. D. Ojin, was a great warrior, and is still worshipped as
- 1 His true name was Kan-yamato-iware-hiko-no-mikoto. After the introduction of Chinese characters, the long native names of gods and emperors were transcribed into the shorter Chinese equivalents. It also became customary for the mikados to receive after death a different name from that which they had borne while living. The first mikado received the name Jimmu, "spirit of war," to which was joined one of the official titles of the mikado, Tennō, "lord of heaven."
- ² Mikado, the most general title of the emperors, is derived either from Mi, "honorable," and Kado, "gate" (compare "Sublime Porte," and "Pharaoh" p. 1, note 3), or from Mika, "great," and to, "place."

the god of war. Introduction of Chinese literature and civilization, which at this date was far in advance of the Japanese. From this time to the sixth century the annals of Japan are marked by no great events.

B. WESTERN PEOPLES.

§ 1. CELTS. Aryan.

Celts, or Kelts, is the name given to that race which, at the dawn of authentic history, occupied the extreme west of Europe. They belonged to the Indo-European family, and, if the Asiatic origin of that family be accepted, were the first branch to enter upon the westward migration.

a. Continental Celts. Gauls.

Geography: At the time of the Roman conquest (59-51), Gaul, or that part of Europe occupied by the Celts (Κελτοί) or Gauls (Γάλλοι), was divided among three great groups of tribes: Belgians, dwelling between the lower Rhine, the forest of Ardennes, the Marne, and Seine. This people have been claimed as Teutons, but the weight of evidence assigns them to the Celts.² Tribes: Remi, Suessiones, Nervii,³ Menapii. Gauls,⁴ dwelling between the Seine, Marne, middle Rhine, Rhône, and Garonne. Tribes: In the valley of the Seine (Sequana): Parisii (with the city Lutetia Parisiorum, now Paris), Senŏnes; in the valley of the Loire (Liger): Namnetes, Turŏnes, Carnutes, Boii, Ædui, Averni; W. of the Seine: Treviri; in the valley of the Saone and Rhône: Sequani, Allobroges. The Aquitanians, between the Garonne and the Pyrenees, were not Celts, but Iberians. In Switzerland: Helvetii, Vindelici.

Religion: Soon after the conquest the theology of the Gauls was largely superseded and corrupted by the introduction of the Roman gods. Little is therefore known of the pure Celtic religion, whose nature has consequently become a favorite subject for dispute. It was a pantheism, which had its cycle of great gods, its local divinities, its deifications of forests, rivers, and fountains. Among the great gods are the following, with their Roman equivalents: Bormo, Grannus (Apollo), with his companion the goddess Damona; Segomo, Cannulus (Mars), with the goddess Nemetonia; Belisama (Minerva?); Taramicus (Jupiter). Complicated and imposing ceremonial, conducted by the Druids, or priests, who were accorded at least equal honors with the nobles. They did not form an hereditary class, but were recruited from the people. Exemption from military service

¹ See Introduction.

² The Belgians are also claimed as non-Aryans, of the same race as the Aquitanians.

Dahn, Urgesch. d. Germ. III. 26, note 9.

⁴ In spite of Cæsar's statement that the Gauls were called Celts in their own language, the two names are not considered synonymous. It is probable that the Gallic tribes formed a division distinct from the Celtic tribes (using Celt in the narrow sense of inhabitant of Gaul). The attempt has even been made to draw the geographical boundary between them.

and taxes. Use of writing, with Greek alphabet. Exercise of jurisdiction. Human sacrifices.

Civilization: That the Celts of Gaul had reached quite an advanced stage of civilization is clear from the readiness with which they accepted the higher civilization of Rome, and from the fact that their social state as depicted by Cæsar exhibits a degeneracy which was not seen again in northern Europe until the decay of the Neustrian state under the Merowingians, in the fifth and sixth centuries B. C.

Chronology: Before the conquest the history of the Celts of

Gaul is the history of their collisions with the southern nations.

The Celtic migration was slow, and large bodies were left behind at various points, as in Bohemia and throughout Germany, where many traces of Celtic occupation survived the Teutonic conquest. According to some writers the Celts immigrated in two bands, the Goidelic or Gadhelic Celts being the more northerly, and the Brythonic or Cymric Celts the more southerly; this is but a surmise. Not earlier than

2000. The Celts reached the western shores of Europe. Their principal settlements were made in central France. They here attained their highest culture, and from this point detachments went forth to conquer new lands. There were four principal emigrations.

1. To the British Isles. Date unknown. See p. 36.

2. To Spain, where they mingled with the Iberian inhabitants and formed the *Celtiberians*. Celts in Spain were known to Herodo-

tus in the fifth century B. C.

3. To Northern Italy. The legendary history of Rome places this event in the reign of Tarquinius Priscus, or about 600 B. C. Tribe followed tribe until the whole of northern Italy was occupied (Gallia Cisalpina). Tribes: Bituriges (Milan), Cenomani (Brescia and Verona), Boii (Bologna), Senones (coast between Rimini and Aucona).

390. Conquest of Rome by the Senones under their Brennus, i. e. military leader.

- 283. Extermination of the Senones by the Romans; defeat of the Boii on the Vadimonian lake.
- 238. General league of Cisalpine Gauls against Rome. Defeat of the league at *Telamon*, 225. Capture of *Milan* by *Scipio*. Formation of Roman colonies at *Placentia*, *Cremona*, *Mutina*. In the second Punic War, *Hannibal* induced the Gauls to take up arms, but in the

193. Battle of Mutina, the last resistance of the Boii was broken and northern Italy was rapidly Romanized.

4. To Greece and Asia Minor. In 278 a band of Gauls under a Brennus ravaged Macedonia and Greece. After a futile attack upon Delphi, the survivors made their way by land to Asia Minor, where they settled in the interior, and gave their name to Galatia.

¹ The stage of development in civilization attained by ancient peoples must be largely determined by the degree of complexity found in their social and political systems. In our day, when material comforts and conveniences form a so much larger part of the popular idea of civilization than they ever did before, it is well to remember this in judging the civilizations that are gone.

Of the Celts of Gaul little is known until the Roman conquest. Some time before this, it is probable, the pressure of the Teutonic migration had made itself felt in the west, but the details of the conflicts are unknown. Celts and Teutons became here and there interspersed, but in general the Rhine was the boundary. About 125–121, the Romans conquered Southern Gaul and made it a province (Gallia Narbonensis). While the Celtic origin of the Cimbri may not be admitted without question, it is certain that Gallic tribes played a considerable part in that great invasion of Italy (113–101).

58-51. Conquest of Gaul by Cæsar (p. 138), after which the history of Gaul belongs to that of Rome.

b. Celts of the British Isles.

BRITAIN.

Geography: The island of Britain forms an irregular triangle, and is bounded E. by the German Ocean, S. by the Straits of Dover and the English Channel, W. by St. George's Channel, the Irish Sea, North Channel, and the Atlantic Ocean. It falls into three geographical divisions, corresponding somewhat to the later political divisions. The extreme north, beyond the deep indentations of the Frith of Clyde and the Frith of Forth, is mountainous and barren, with numerous small lakes (Loch Ness, Loch Tay, Loch Lomond), and sharply cut coasts on the west. II. The southern and eastern portion: hilly in the N. and W.; on the E. a broad plain, well watered and fertile. Eastern rivers: Humber (Ouse, Trent), Witham, Welland, Nen, Ouse, running through a broad fen-land into the Wash, Thames. Western rivers: Severn, Mersey. Island of Wight. In early times the greater part of this plain, the modern England, was covered with forests, of which scanty traces remain. The Andredsweald covered a large part of the counties of Surrey and Sussex; north of the Thames a huge forest extended nearly to the Wash, of which Epping and Hainault forests formed a part. The fens about the Wash were much more extensive than now. III. The broad western promontory of Wales, mountainous with small rivers. Island of Anglesea.

Religion and Civilization: The Celts of Britain were ruder than their brethren of Gaul, and never reached the same stage of civilization, but they seem to have resembled the continental Celts in cus-

toms and religion. Druids. Bards.

History. a. Mythical: Inordinate pride of ancestry, a fertile imagination, and an acquaintance with Biblical and classical history enabled the British bards and priestly historians to compose for their race a mythical past, unique in its extent, its detail, and its disregard of time and space. Gaul was colonized by Meschish, son of Japhet, son of Noah, about 1799 (Anno Mundi) under the name of Samothes. Meschish ruled Gaul 109 years, when he conquered Britain in 1908 (A. M.) and reigned over both countries 47 years. He was followed by six sovereigns of his race, but on the accession of the seventh, Lucius, 2211 A. M., Britain was wrested from his rule by Albion, a descendant of Ham. He and his successors reigned over Britain

until 2896 A. M. or 1108 B. C., when the line of Japhet recovered the island in the person of Brute, great-grandson of Æneas of Troy. Brute built Troynouant, afterwards Lud's Town, London. He was followed by his descendants, among whom we may mention Bladud, founder of Bath, Leir (841-791), Ferrex and Porrex (496-491), with whom his line expired. Britain for a time divided into five kingdoms, was finally reunited under Malmucius Dunwall, the son of Cloten king of Cornwall (441-401), whose son Brennus left his island home to sack Rome, assault Delphi, and found the kingdom of Among the successors of Malmucius were Coill (160-140). Galatia.¹ Pyrrhus (66-64), and Lud (who in some mysterious manner began to reign in 69) Cassivelaunus (expedition of Cæsar), Cymbeline (19 B. C.-16 A. D.), Caractacus, Vortigern (445-455 (485) A. D.). Arthur (508-542). Finally the list merges in the historical line of the kings and princes of Wales.

b. Probable. The Britons of historic times were Celts who came to the island from Gaul at two periods. The first invasion was very early, and the invaders were Celts of the Goidelic (Gadhelic) or northern branch. From the testimony of sepulchral monuments it is conjectured that the Celts found two races in Britain: a small, dark-haired race, perhaps of Iberian stock, and a large light-haired race of Scandinavian origin. The Goidelic Celts conquered without exterminating the previous inhabitants, and held the land many centuries, until a new invasion of continental Celts occurred. This time it was the Brythonic or Cymric Celts of the southern stock, who crossed the channel, probably not very long before the expedition of Cæsar, and dispossessed their kinsmen of the southern and eastern portion of the island. Tribes: Cantii, the most civilized, Attrebatii, Belga,

Damnonii, Silures, Trinobantes, Iceni, Brigantes, etc.

The ancients received their first direct knowledge of Britain from Pytheas of Massilia, who landed on the island in the third century That the Phænicians ever visited Britain is doubted by English scholars, who contend that they obtained their tin either from the rivers of Gaul, or from the Gallic tribes who imported it from

Britain. With

- 55-54 B. C. The two expeditions of Cæsar, the actual history of Britain begins. The effect of the invasions was transitory.
- 43 A. D. Claudius began the conquest of Britain in earnest, and his generals reduced the country south of the Avon and Severn.

Revolt of Boadicea, leader of the Iceni; her defeat.

Agricola, under Vespasian and Domitian, carried the Roman arms far into Scotland and built a wall from the Frith of Forth to the Frith of Clyde as a defense against the wild tribes of the north. Henceforward Britannia formed a tolerably quiet part of the Roman empire. Roman fortresses, towns and villas covered its soil in profusion.

Hadrian built a wall from the Tyne to the Solway. In

¹ Brennus killed himself after the repulse from Delphi; his army settled in Galatia.

139. Antoninus strengthened the wall of Agricola. In 210 Severus added new defenses to that of Hadrian.

180. Legendary conversion of Lucius, king of the Trinobantes, to Christianity, after which the new religion spread throughout the country, a church was organized and bishoprics founded

at Canterbury and York (?).

With the decay of the empire its power in Britain declined. Troops were withdrawn to assist in defending the continental borders, or in supporting the claims of rival aspirants for the crown. During the third century the attacks of the *Picts* and *Scots* in the north grew more and more severe, while the southern and eastern coasts suffered from the ravages of the Frank and Saxon pirates. *Count of the Saxon Shore*, the officer in charge of the coast between the *Wash* and Southampton water, which was most exposed to these ravages. From

286-294 Britain was independent under Cerausius, who proclaimed himself emperor of Britain.

360. Scots from Ireland ravaged the western shores.

410. Honorius renounced the sovereignty of Britain. The withdrawal of the legions left Britain to her own resources. A period of civil dissension and exposure to foreign inroads fol-

lowed, broken by the

411. "Alleluia Victory" of the Britons accompanied by St. Germanus, over the Picts. Finally the king of the Damnonii, Vortigern (Guorthigen), either by usurpation or election, obtained the sovereignty over a large part of the island, and, as the story goes, invited the invasion of the Teutonic conquerors (p. 176).

IRELAND.

Geography: Lying W. of Britain, Ireland is bounded on the E. by the North Channel, the Irish Sea, and St. George's Channel; on all other sides by the Atlantic Ocean. It is a low plain, fringed with hilly tracks upon the coast; abounding in lakes (Lough Corrib, L. Mask, L. Erne, L. Neagh, Lakes of Killarney, L. Dearg, L. Ree), and rivers (Boyne, Liffey, Barrow, Blackwater, Shannon).

Religion and Civilization: In Ireland as in Britain we find Celtic inhabitants, Celtic religion, and Celtic culture, but both in a still more primitive form than in England; so much so, indeed, that it may be, the Celts of Ireland were the best representatives of

primitive Aryan civilization. Druids. Bards.

History: Again the historian is confronted with a vast mass of very valuable tradition mingled with a great amount of priestly invention. The Irish historical books speak of five invasions of Ireland. I. Partholan led a force from central Greece, which ruled

¹ Comes Litoris Saxonici per Britanniam. An attempt has been made (Lappenberg, Kemble) to show that this name indicates the settlement of Saxons upon this shore long before the Teutonic conquest. What people, it has been asked, would name a portion of their country after its worst enemies? A reference to our "Indian Frontier," by which is meant land held by the whites but molested by Indians, might dispel this objection. The argument from coinage is stronger, but on the whole the assumption does not seem to be proved.

Ireland 300 years, and then died of the plague, and were succeeded by II. Nemed, from Scythia, who also died of the plague. III. Firbolgs, who came under five chiefs and settled in various parts of the island. IV. The Tuatha Dé Danann, of the race of Nemed, who defeated and nearly exterminated the Firbolgs. V. Milesians or Scots, who under Galam, son of Breogan, came from Spain, and conquering the Tuatha Dé Danann, divided Ireland among the sons and other relatives of Galam. The ancestry of Galam goes back to Noah. The historical interpretation of these legends seems at present to be that Ireland at the commencement of the Christian era was occupied in the north by Goidelic Celts (Cruithni, Picts); in the east and centre by British and Belgic tribes (Cymric), and in the southwest (Munster) by a people of southern extraction (Iberians?). Between the numerous petty kingdoms thus established incessant war prevailed, with the details of which the legendary history is filled. Tuathal (died 160 A. D.), a powerful king who reigned over Leinster and Meath, and warred with the rival kingdom or kingdoms in Munster, is probably historic. Irish Invasions of Britain: Settlements in Wales, Devon, and Cornwall, and especially in the north. Ireland was never conquered, or even invaded, by the Romans, though Agricola had planned an Irish expedition. The Irish were converted to Christianity in the fifth century. Palladius, sent to Ireland, 431 A. D., died soon after. St. Patrick (Succath or Maun), took up the work and brought it to a successful conclusion. Establishment of numerous monasteries, which in the next century attained wide renown for the learning of their members.

§ 2. GRECIAN HISTORY. Aryan.

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF ANCIENT GREECE. See Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. V and VI.

The peninsula of Greece (Hellas, $\dot{\eta}$ Eddas) bounded N. by Macedonia and Illyria, and on all other sides by the sea (E. mare $\cancel{Egœum}$, S. mare $\cancel{Myrtoūm}$ and mare $\cancel{Cretĭcum}$, W. mare \cancel{Ionium}), is divided into four principal regions: Peloponnesus, Central Greece, Thessaly, Epirus.

A. Peloponnesus (ἡ Πελοπόννησος, Island of Pelops), connected with the mainland by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth, washed on the N. by the waters of the Corinthian Gulf, is divided into nine districts: 1. Achaia, formerly inhabited by Ionians, in twelve communities, or cantons. Ægium, capital of the confederacy, Patræ. 2. Elis or Eleia, in Æolic dialect, Vālis, drained by the Alphēus and Penēus. It is subdivided into Elis Proper, or Hollow Elis: Elis and its harbor Cyllēne, Pisatis: Olympia, which was not a city but a temple of Zeus, surrounded by groves, places for games, altars and various buildings, and Triphylia. 3. Messenia: Pylos, the home of Nestor, opposite the island of Sphacteria, Messēne, built in 369 B. C., the hill fortresses of Ithome and Ina. 4. Laconia (Λακωνική), with the mountain range of Taygĕtus, ending in the promontory Tænărus: Sparta (Σπάρτη), on the right bank of the Eurōtas; north of Sparta, Sellasia; on the coast Helos and Gythium, the harbors of Sparta,

5. Argolis (τὸ Ἄργος, ἡ ᾿Αργεία) comprised many cantons, politically independent of one another: Argos, with its harbor Nauplia, on the gulf of Argolis, near by Tiryns, with Cyclopean walls, Hermione, Træzēn, Epidaurus, on the Saronicus sinus; inland, Mycenæ with Cyclopean structures. The Lion Gate, the so-called Treasure House of Atreus. 6. Phliasia: Phliūs. 7. Corinthia: Corinth, formerly Ephyra with its citadel Acrocorinthus. 8. Sicyonia: Sicyon (Σικυών). 9. Arcadia, the mountainous region in the interior, with the ranges Cyllēne and Erymanthus on the borders of Achaia; Mantinēa, Tegea,

Megalopolis, the latter founded in 370.

B. Central Greece, also divided into nine districts: 1. Megaris, since the Dorian conquest, belonging ethnographically and politically to Peloponnesus: Megăra, and its harbor Nisæa. ('ATTIKH) with the mountains Parnes, Brilissus (Pentelicus), Hymettus, and the promontory of Suntum, the rivulets Cephissus and Ilissus. Athens ('Abnvai) with the Acropolis (Propylæa, Parthenon, Erechtheion), the fortified harbor of Piraus (Πειραιεύς), connected with the city by the Long Walls (τὰ μακρὰ τείχη; τὰ σκέλη), the two unimportant harbors Munychia and Zea and the open bay of Phaleron, which served as a roadstead. Attic demes: Eleusis, Marăthon, Decelēa, Phyle, etc. 3. Bosotia, with Mts. Helicon, and Cithoron, Lake Copais, traversed by the Cephissus; Thebes (ἐπτάπυλος), with its citadel the Cadmēa; Thespiæ; Leuctra; Platææ, which separated itself very early from the Bœotian league and allied itself with Athens; Haliartus, Coronēa, Orchomenos. On the coast; Aulis, Delium, and, not far distant, Tanăgra. 4. Phocis: At the base of Mt. Parnassus, Delphi (Δελφοί), with the oracle of the Pythian Apollo, Crissa, with its harbor, Cirrha; Elatēa. 5. Eastern Locris: (Λοκροί ἡφοι), for a time divided by a part of Phocis into the southern region of the Opuntian Locrians with the town Opus, and the northern of the Epicnemidian Locrians (i. e. they who dwell on the mountain of *Cnemis*) with the town Thronium. 6. Western Locris (Λοκροί ἐσπέριοι, called by the other Grecians Λοκροί οζόλαι, "the stinking"). Amphissa, Naupactus. 7. Doris (Duples), between the mountains Eta and Parnassus, the country of a small body of Dorians, who at the time of the Dorian invasion remained in the north, called from its four unimportant villages, the Tetrapolis. 8. Ætolia, Calydon, Pleuron, and Thermum (no city, but the place where the assembly met at the time of the Ætolian league). 9. Acarnania, with the promontory Actium; Stratus, near the river Achelous, ('A $\chi \in \lambda \hat{\varphi}_{0s}$) which separates Acarnania from Ætolia.

C. Thessaly, watered by the Penēus (valley of Tempe), with the mountain range of Pindus in the W. on the border of Epirus; in the S. Othrys; in the E. Pelion, Ossa; in the N. Olympus and the Cambunian mountains.² Five divisions from S. to N.: 1. Phthiotis, in the most southern part, Malis, on the Sinus Maliacus was the Pass of Thermopylæ, i. e. "gate of the warm springs;" Lemĭa. 2. Thessaliotis, Pharsālus. 3. Pelasgiotis, Pheræ, Crannōn, Larissa on the

¹ The expression Hellas propria first appears in the Roman period; the Greeks never used Hellas for the name of this particular part of the country.

2 But see Kiepert, Lehrb. d. a. Geogr., § 210, note 1.

Penēus. 4. Hestiæotis. 5. The eastern coast land, Magnesia, Iolcos, on the Sinus Pagasæus, Demetrias.

D. Epirus. In historic times inhabited by Illyrian tribes not of pure Grecian blood. Principal tribes: Molossians, in whose territory was Ambracia, not far from the Ambracian gulf, and Dodona (oracle of Zeus); Thesprotians, Pandosia on the Acheron, Chaonians.

In Macedonia, which lay north from Thessaly, the following places are to be noted: Pydna, Pella, the royal residence since the reign of Archelaus (formerly Ægae or Edessa enjoyed this distinction). On the peninsula Chalcidice: Olynthus, Potidæa, Stagīrus. In Thrace: Amphipēlis near the mouth of the Strymon, Philippæ, Abdera, Perinthus (Heraclēa), Byzantĭum. In the Thracian Chersonese: Sēstos, opposite Abydos in Asia Minor.

Most important islands: In the Ægean sea: 1, Crete (Κρήτη, ἐκατόμπολις): Cnosus (Gnōssus), and Gortyn (a); 2, Thera, a colony of Sparta, itself mother city of Cyrēne in Africa (p. 49), Melos; 3, the 12 Cyclades: Paros, Naxos, to the north the small Delos (Mt. Cynthus, sanctuary of Apollo), Cythnos, Ceos, Andros, Tenos, etc. In the Saronic gulf: 4, Ægīna (Αἴγινα); 5, Salamis. In the sea of Eubæa; 6, Eubæa with the promontory of Artemisium in the north, Chalcis, Eretria. In the Thracian sea: 7, Lēmnos; 8, Samothrace; 9, Thasos. On the coast of Asia Minor from N. to S.: 10, Tĕnĕdos, not far from Ilium or Troy, in the district of Troas; 11, Lesbos: Mitylene, Methymna; 12, Chios; 13, Samos opposite the promontory of Mycāle; 14, Cos; 15, Rhodes.

In the eastern part of the Mediterranean the island of Cyprus, (Κόπρος), cities (originally Phœnician, afterwards Greek): Salamis (Schalem), Paphos and Amathus, centre of the worship of Aphrodite

(Venus Amathusia).

In the Ionian sea from S. to N.: 1, Cythera, south of Laconia, with temple of Aphrodite; 2, Zacynthos; 3, Cephallenia, called by Homer Samos; 4, Ithaca; 5, Leucas; 6, Corcyra (Κέρκυρα), perhaps the Scheria of Homer.

RELIGION OF THE GREEKS.1

The religion of the early Greeks was a pantheistic nature-worship, distinguished among others by the multiplicity of its deities, and their intricate gradation, as well as by the wealth of biographical detail which the imagination of the poets provided for them. The great gods, Olympic deities, were 12 in number. Male divinities: Zeus "the God," lord of the sky, and ruler of all other gods as well as of men; Poseidon, god of the sea; Apollo, probably originally the highest god of some local district, the divinity of wisdom, of healing, of music and poetry, but not until later the sun-god; Ares, god of war; Hephæstus, god of fire, and of work accomplished by the application of fire, set apart from the other gods by his lameness; Hermes, god of invention, commercial skill, cunning, bravery. Female divinities: Hera, con-

¹ Rawlinson, Religions of the Ancient World. Also Grote, Hist. of Greece, vol. I.; Curtius, Griech. Gesch. I. 543-60; 456-549 passim.

sort of Zeus; Athene, the maiden goddess sprung from the head of Zeus, the embodiment of wisdom and of housewifery; Artemis, goddess of hunting, afterwards connected with the moon, as her brother Phœbus Apollo, with the sun; Aphrodite, goddess of sensual love, probably introduced from the East; Hestia, goddess of fire, especially of the hearth-fire; Demeter, "earth-mother," presiding over agriculture.

In the lower rank of gods may be mentioned: Dionysius, god of wine and drunkenness; Hades, god of the lower world, the Graces, the Muses, the Fates, the Furies, etc. The fields and forests, the ocean and the rivers were crowded with Nymphs and Hamadryads, Naiads and Nereids, while creatures of a lower order, Satyrs (among whom Pan rose to the level of a god of the second rank) and monsters (Cyclopes, Gorgons, Centaurs, etc.) abounded.

Reverence was also paid to the *heroes*, ideal representations of famous men, real or imaginary. Such were *Cadmus* (Thebes), *Theseus* (Athens), and *Heracles*, the mostly widely known of all (see p. 45).

The gods were worshipped by invocation, and by sacrifices offered in accordance with a rigid ritual at altars which could be improvised anywhere. There were, however, permanent altars for all divinities, in temples where the statue of the divinity was also en-These temples were frequently erected on lofty and commanding sites, and upon their construction and decoration was lavished the highest skill in architecture and sculpture. Brilliant coloring was also employed upon the temples. Each family, tribe and race, each city, district and country had its recurring festivals of special honor to the gods (Panathenæa at Athens). Religious festivals of all Greece: Olympian (Zeus) every fifth year, in July or August, at Olympia in Elis; Pythian (Apollo), every fifth (9th) year, at Delphi; *Isthmian* (Neptune), every five years on the Isthmus of Corinth; *Nemean*, every third year, at Nemea in Argolis. These festivals were the centre of Grecian national life. Amphyctionic Council, the most important of the Amphyctionics (p. 51), a religious conference which met at Delphi, and represented the political side of the Pan-Hellenic religion. Consultation of oracles, for obtaining the counsel of the gods, especially at Delphi. Mysteries, or rites of secret religious societies, the most renowned at *Eleusis*. No hierarchy of priests; yet those who had charge of the sacrifices, and more especially of the oracles, often attained great influence.

Ideas of future life vague and unsatisfactory. The more advanced minds among the Greeks undoubtedly attained to the idea of the es-

sential oneness of divinity.

GRECIAN HISTORY CAN BE DIVIDED INTO FOUR EPOCHS.

x-1104 (?). I. Mythical period down to the *Thessalian* and *Dorian* migration.

1104 (?)-500. II. Formation of the Hellenic states. Period of constitutional struggles down to the Persian wars.

500-338. III. Persian wars and internecine strife for the hegemony down to the loss of independence at the battle of Charonēa.

338-146. IV. Græco-Macedonian or Hellenistic period down to the subjugation of Greece by the Romans. Destruction of Corinth.

FIRST PERIOD.

Mythical time, down to the Thessalian and Dorian migration $(x-1104?).^1$

The Greeks, or as they called themselves the Hellenes ($^{\prime}$ E $\lambda\lambda\eta\nu\epsilon s$),

belong to the *Indo-European* or Aryan family.

The Greeks state that the original inhabitants of their country were the **Pelasgians**. The meaning of this name is much disputed. According to some scholars it denotes the band which afterwards divided into the Italians and Hellenes. Another view regards the Pelasgians and Hellenes as the same people, but holds that the latter name is applied to those tribes which, "endowed with peculiar abilities and inspired with peculiar energy, distinguished themselves above the mass of a great people, while they extended their power within the same by force of arms," 8 so that their name became in historic times the one generally accepted. Others, again, regard the name Pelasgian as Semitic, and so applied originally to the Phænician inhabitants of the coast, especially to the Minyx of Orchomenos, and afterwards erroneously transferred to the Illyrian aborigines of Epirus, Acadia, etc.

Dodona, in Epirus, with the oracle of Zeus, the god of the sky, was the oldest centre of the Pelasgian life and religion. Remains of Pelasgian buildings, called by the Greeks Cyclopean, are found in

Tiryns in Argolis, and in Orchomenos in Beetia.

Our earliest historical information shows the Hellenes divided into various tribes. Of these the Achæans were most prominent during the heroic times, and their name was therefore used by Homer to denote the entire race. In historic times, on the contrary, the Dorians and Ionians occupy the foreground; the other tribes are then classed together under the name Æolian, and the dialects which were neither Dorian nor Ionian are known as Æolian. The following mythical genealogy seems to have been invented at a very late period, and to have originated at Delphi.

Hellen (son of Deucalion)

Eolus (i. e. the many-colored) Dorus Xuthus (i. e. the exile) IonAchæus.

We have no authentic information about the manner of the Hellenic migration into Greece. According to one well-founded theory, a part of the immigrants, and among them the ancestors of the Dorians, forced their way over the Hellespont into the mountainous region of northern Greece, where they established themselves as shepherds and tillers of the land. Other bands, among whom were the ancestors of the *Ionians*, having descended from the highlands of Phry-

According to Duncker, Hist. of Antiq., 100 years later.
 Gräken (Græci, Γραικοι) was the name given to the Greeks by the people of Italy; it was the name of a tribe in Epīrus, or the Illyrian name for the Hellenes in general. 8 Curtius, Griechische Geschichte, I. 29; Hist. of Greece, N. Y. 1876, I. 4

gia, by way of the valleys, to the coast of Asia Minor, were there transformed into a race of seamen, and gradually spread themselves over the islands of the Archipelago to the mainland of Greece.¹ (The former formed the western, the latter, the eastern Greeks).

Remembrance of the fact that western Greece received its civilization from the East gave rise, at a later period, to stories about un-

authentic immigrations.2

Cecrops (Kérpoų), according to the original story autochthonus king of Attica, and builder of the Cecropia (Acropolis of Athens), was afterwards, in consequence of that identification of Grecian and Egyptian mythology which is illustrated by the conception of Neith, goddess of Saïs, as Pallas Athene (p. 2), falsely represented

as an Egyptian immigrant from Saïs.

The truth seems to be that the cliffs by the Ilissus, which were called the Cecropia, formed the first fortress of the inhabitants of the region, upon which their altars and sanctuaries found protection, and around which the first beginnings of political life in Attica grouped themselves. Afterwards the Cecropia was personified under the name Cecrops. According to the legend Cecrops was succeeded by Erichthonios, the latter by Erechtheus, the two becoming soon united into one person, in whom the Erechtheion, the temple of *Poseidon Erechtheus*, on the Acropolis, is personified. The legend makes Erechtheus the founder of the festival of Panathenæa and conqueror of Eumolpus (i. e. sweet singer) of Eleusis, the centre of the worship of Demeter (story of her daughter Corē, in the lower world Proserpina; the Eleusinian mysteries). Eleusis was united with Athens into one community. Erechtheus, according to the legend, was succeeded by Eneus, the latter by Ægeus, the father of Theseus, the national hero of the Ionians (p. 45).

A later legend tells how Danaus, brother of Ægyptus, came from Upper Egypt to Argos. He, too, with his fifty daughters, the Danaides, who, with the exception of Hypermnestra, murdered their husbands, the sons of Ægyptus, and were for this crime condemned to fill the bottomless tub, belongs to the native mythology. The Danaides are the springs of Argos, which, in the summer time, exert themselves in vain to satisfy the soil; the water which gushes from them being dried up in the chalky earth. According to the legend

the descendants of Lynceus and Hypermnestra ruled in Argos.

On the other hand the legend of the migration of the Pelopidæ from Lydia to Greece seems to have a historical foundation. Pelops, son of king Tantalus, who ruled the country about the Sipylus, came to Elis in Peloponnesus. His sons Atreus and Thyestes, with the help of Achæans from Phthiotis, made themselves masters of Tiryns and Mycēnæ, which had been founded by Perseus. Of the sons of Atreus, Agamemnon reigned over the whole of Argolis, while Menelaus became king of Sparta and Messina. The buildings and sculptures in Mycēnæ, which are ascribed to the Atridæ, resemble Assyrian art, and Assyrian art could have come to Greece earliest by way of Lydia.

¹ Curtius, I., Griech. Gesch., I. 29 sqq.; Hist. of Greece, I. 41.

² Cf. Duncker, Gesch. des Alth., III. (2 Auflage), 1 Kap. 4-6. Curtius, Griech. Gesch., I. 58; Hist. of Greece, I. 73.

Cadmus, the mythical founder of the Theban state, is the personification of *Phænician* colonization, or at least of that civilization which Hellas had received from Phænicia (p. 18).

The national heroes of Grecian legend.

The myth of Heracles ('Hpak $\lambda \hat{\eta}$ s, Hercüles), son of Zeus and Alcmēna, grew up out of the union of various religious, historical, and ethical elements. Heracles was in the beginning an actual divinity whom tradition, in the course of time, degraded to a demi-god. him are united the Phænician Melkart (p. 17) and Sandon, the sungod of Asia Minor, and his heroic deeds are for the most part adaptations of the deeds ascribed to these two divinities. Heracles is at the same time the popular symbol brought by the Phænicians to the eastern Greeks, and from them to the western Greeks, of the pioneer activity of the ancient settlements. A portion of the mass of legends connected with Heracles after his transformation into a Greek is explained by later historical relations. The Dorians adopted him as their tribal hero. Their kings called themselves his descendants, Heraclidæ; from him they derived their rights to the Peloponnesus. Hence his rights, in the legends, not only over $Myc\bar{e}n\alpha$, in opposition to Eurystheus, but also over other parts of the peninsula (Augias in Elis, Tyndareos in Sparta). The poetry of a later time, regarding Heracles as an ethical conception, presented him as the model of heroism, moral force, and renunciation, especially of willing obedience (the 12 labors at the behest of Eurystheus; the choice of Hercules).

Theseus ($\Theta\eta\sigma\epsilon\dot{\nu}s$), son of Ægeus, the descendant of Cecrops, is the family hero of the Ionians, and of the Athenians in particular. He cleared the road from Troezen, where, according to the legend, he was born, to Athens (especially the isthmus), of robbers (Periphetes, Sinnis, Sciron, Damastes or Procrustes), so that the Ionians of the Peloponnesus and of Attica thenceforward could assemble on the isthmus at the sacrifices to Poseidon. Theseus put to death the Minotaur in Crete, and rescued the Athenian youths and maidens sent as a sacrifice to him. He conquered at Marathon the wild bull which is said to have likewise come from Crete. He repulsed the Amazons who made an attack upon Athens for the purpose of avenging the rape of Antiope. These three myths express the historical fact of the liberation of Attica from the tribute which it owed to the Phænicians of Crete and the smaller islands, who offered human sacrifices to their god Moloch. The origin of the story of the Amazons is to be found in the virgin servants of the Phænician goddess Astarte, who, at the religious ceremonies, executed dances in armor. The legend, moreover, ascribes to Theseus the union of the inhabitants of Attica into one state, and the separation of the people into the three orders: Eupatridæ (nobles), Geomori (peasants), and Demiurgi (artizans), whereas the arrangement of the four ancient classes (Phylæ): Geleontes (nobles), Hoplues (warriors), Argadeis (artizans), Ægicoreis (shepherds) was referred by the Athenians to the mythical tribal ancestor of the Ionian tribe, Ion (p. 43).

The Grecian legends adopted Minos (Mirws), also originally of Phænician origin, and transformed him into a Hero of the Dorians who dwelt in Crete since 1000, and a wise legislator and suppressor of piracy.

Concerted enterprises of the heroic time.

Expedition of the Argonauts. The golden fleece.

Phrixos, son of the king of the Minyæ, Athamas of Iolcos, in Thessaly, whom his father was about to sacrifice to Zeus in order to obtain rain, fled with his sister Helle, on the ram with the golden fleece, who was given them by their mother Nephele. Helle during the journey fell into the sea, which is now called Hellespont ("sea of Helle"), near Abydos. Phrixos reached Colchis, on the Pontus Euxinus, and king Æetes. The ram was sacrificed, the golden fleece preserved in a grove of the god Ares, guarded by a dragon. Jason, from Iolcos, incited by his uncle Pelïas, sailed in the ship Argo to Colchis at the head of a band of heroes consisting, according to the original myth, of Minyæ alone, but according to the later legends accompanied by Heracles, Theseus, Castor, Pollux, Orpheus, etc. They gained possession of the fleece by the aid of the enchantress Medēa, daughter of Aetes. Return to Iolcos. Pelias murdered at the instigation of Medēa. According to a later continuation of the legend, flight of Jason and Medēa to Corinth, where Jason fell in love with Glauca, the daughter of the king. Medēa poisoned Glauca, and killed her own children. Medēa went to Athens and became the consort of $oldsymbol{\mathit{E}}$ geus.

This myth seems to have been originally purely symbolical. The golden ram, which Nephele, that is, the "cloud," sends, is a representation of the fertilizing power of rain-clouds. The cloud-ram departs to his home, the land of the sun-god. His fleece, a pledge of blessing, is brought back by Jason (the "healer," the "bringer of blessings"), with the help of the daughter of the son of the sun, Æētes, who is learned in magic. This myth was afterwards expanded and localized in a manner which hints at the early voyages of the Pelasgic (p. 43) Minyæ. The principal site of the wealth and power of the Minyæ was Orchomenos in Bæotia; but the gulf of Pagăsæ, on which Iolcos is situated, is the scene of their early inter-

course by sea.

War of the Seven against Thebes.

The story of Œdĭpus appears in its simplest form in Homer, and was expanded by the Attic tragic poets. Œdipus (Oίδίπους), son of Jocasta, and Laïos king of Thebes, a great-grandson of Cadmus, is exposed, in infancy, in consequence of an oracle which prophesied injury to his parents. He was rescued and brought up by Polybos in Corinth. At Delphi he kills his father, without recognizing him, solves the riddle of the Sphinx (What creature is there which goes on 4, 2, and 3 feet? Man, in childhood, in manhood, in old age), becomes king of Thebes, and marries his own mother. When his crime is made known to him, he puts out his eyes. His daughters Antigŏne and Ismēne. Quarrels of his sons Eteòcles (Ἐτεοκλῆs) and

Polynices (Πολυνείκης). Polynices attacks Thebes with his allies: Adrastus, Tydeus, Amphiarāus, Capăneus, Hippomedon, Parthenopæus. The hostile brothers fall in personal contest; of the other princes all perish but Creon, the uncle of the brothers, who becomes king of Thebes.

War of the Epigoni.

Ten years later, expedition of the *Epigoni* (sons of the Seven). Thebes captured and plundered. *Thersander*, son of *Polynices*, made king of Thebes.

1193-1184. Trojan War.

Priam was king of Troy, or Ilium, in Asia Minor; his consort was Hecüba (Hecabe). Of his fifty sons the following appear in the legend: Hector (Εκτωρ), whose wife is Andromache, and Paris (Alexandros). The latter abducts Helena (Ελένη), wife of Menelāus, of Sparta. The noblest princes of Greece unite to bring her back. Agamemnon of Mycēnæ, brother of Menelaus, and leader of the Greeks; Sthenelus of Tiryns; Nestor of Pylos; Achilles (ἀχιλλεθε), king of the Myrmidons from Phthia in Thessaly, son of Peleus and the Nereid Thetis; Patroclus; Ajax (Aĭas), and Teucer, sons of Telamon of Salămis; the younger Ajax, son of Oïleus, leader of the Locrians; Diomedes of Argos, son of Tydeus; Odysseus of Ithaca, son of Laërtes; Idoměneus, of Crete, grandson of Minos, etc.

Among the allies of the Trojans from Asia Minor are: Sarpēdon and Glaucus, leaders of the Lycians, troops from Mysia, Mæonia (in Lydia), Paphlagonia, and Phrygia, also Thracians and Pæones from the other side of the strait.

The historical kernel of this great Grecian legend is, perhaps, the fact of a military expedition of Grecian tribes against the Trojans and the conquest of Troy; everything else in the story is mythical. Perchance the Æolian colonization of historic times (p. 49) and the ensuing contests with the native population gave rise to the romance of the Trojan war, which tradition then removed to the time before the Dorian migration. The prehistoric existence of a powerful city in the neighborhood of Troy, and its name Troin and Illion, is certain.

Connected with the tale of the Trojan war, are the stories of the return of the Grecian princes. The murder of Agamemnon by his wife Clytemnestra and her paramour, and the vengeance of his children Orestes and Electra. The ten years wandering of Odysseus and his many adventures (Polyphemus, Lastrygones, Circe, Calypso, the Phæacians, etc.).

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Thessalian and Dorian Migration to the beginning of the Persian Wars, (1104 (?)-500.)

Migration of the *Thessalians* from Epīrus to the valley of the Penēus, thenceforward called Thessaly. Of the former inhabitants, *Eolians*, part became serfs (πενέσται), part fled the country. A por-

tion of the latter conquered Bœotia. The previous inhabitants of Bœotia, probably Pelasgians, as for instance the Minyæ in Orchomĕnos, and the *Cadmeans* in Thebes, were partly subdued, partly scattered in various settlements. Their name is henceforward un-

known to history.

The Dorians were likewise driven away by the Thessalians. They had inhabited the country about the Othrys and Œta, and the small mountainous region where they maintained themselves after the invasion, and which was known as Doris. That portion of them which emigrated also took the southern way. Strengthened by Ætolian bands, they crossed to the Peloponnesus between Naupactus, where they constructed vessels, and the promontory of Rhion. This is the so-called

1104 (?).¹ Dorian migration, or the conquest of Peloponnesus by the Dorians and Ætolians, according to the story, under the leadership of the Heraclidæ (Teměnus, Cresphontes, Aristodēmus, descendants of Heracles.

The conquerors crossed the northern portion of the Peloponnesus without making a settlement, and turned towards the countries on the western coast. The inhabitants of these regions, the *Epei*, being subdued, the *Ætolians* established themselves here, and founded a new commonwealth, called *Elis*. Out of the mixture of the Ætolians and Epei, sprang the new tribe of the Elei. The *Dorians* passed through southern Arcadia, probably up the valley of the Alphēus, and established themselves in the south and east of Peloponnesus. The native population, consisting of Achæans and Æolians, were in part expelled, in part placed in subjection; while in some regions they gave up certain territories to the new-comers by treaty. The last was the case in Laconia, where the native chiefs made treaties with the invaders and thereby received for a time recognition of their princely rights and support in their supremacy.

So arose in Peloponnesus, one after another, but slowly and after much fighting and many revolutions, the following Dorian communities: 1. Messenia (Cresphontes); 2. Sparta (Procles and Eurysthenes, sons of Aristodenus); 3. Argos (Temenus), at first the most powerful state, at the head of a league, to which Epidaurus and Trazen, under their own rulers, belonged; 4. Phlius; 5. Sicyon; 6. Corinth, these three containing many of the old inhabitants, who lived among the new inhabitants under the same laws. Outside of Peloponnesus: 7.

Megara; and 8. the island Ægina (Αἴγινα).

The remains of the old population, the Achæans, who were driven from their homes, expelled or subjugated the Ægialian Ionians, who inhabited the northern coast of Peloponnesus.

The whole region was henceforward called Achaia.

1068 (?). Codrus (Κόδρος), the last king of Athens, fell a voluntary sacrifice in battle against the Dorians.

According to the legend, Codrus was the son of the Nestorian Melanthus, who had fled from Pylos to Athens.

¹ See p. 43, note 1.

The immediate consequence of these migrations and conquests was the practice of colonization, on a great scale, which at first was carried on by the tribes which had been expelled from their homes, but in which the conquering Dorians soon took active part.

The Pelasgic population, driven from Thessaly, settled partly on the peninsula Chalcidice, partly in Crete, and partly on the coast of Mysia; the Minyæ from Iolcos, and Orchomenos occupied Lemnos,

Imbros, Samothrace. More important were the

1000-900 (?) Æolian, Ionian, Dorian colonies which settled along the coast of Asia Minor and its islands.

Ælolian and Achæan colonies: Mitylene and Methymna on the island of Lesbos; Cyme and Smyrna on the mainland of Asia Minor

(Smyrna afterwards became Ionian).

The Ionians, who were driven away by the Achæans, fled first to Attica, but finally founded along the coast of Lydia 12 cities with a common sanctuary at *Panionium* on Mycăle, the most important of which were: *Miletus*, mother-city of more than 80 colonies, *Ephĕsus*, *Phocæa* (p. 26), *Colŏphōn*, and occupied the islands of *Samos* and *Chios*.

Dorian colonies, along the coast of Caria: Halicarnassus and Cnidus. Dorians and Achaeans founded settlements in Crete, Rhodes, where they gradually drove out the Phænicians, in Melos and in Thyra, whence in 631 the colony of Cyrēne was sent out to the north coast of Africa.

1000 (?). Homer and his successors (Homeridæ). Iliad and Odyssey.

Constitution of society and government. During the heroic period, and at the beginning of historic times, we find everywhere a patriarchal monarchy, the hereditary property of families who derived their descent from the gods. In the historic times gradual formation in all states of a republican constitution, partly through the extinction, partly through the expulsion, of the old dynasties. This republican constitution was at first aristocratic; later, in most states, democratic, frequently reaching the latter state through the intervening supremacy of a Tyrant (Tópavros), a name applied to every one who attained supreme power in an illegal manner, and originally not conveying the idea of an arbitrary or cruel government.

The democracy of antiquity was not, however, a form of government in which the majority of the *inhabitants*, but in which the majority of the *citizens*, took part in the conduct of the commonwealth. In most of the Greek states, the majority of the population consisted, not of citizens, but of slaves. Democracies in the *modern* sense were almost unknown in ancient times.

In Doric Sparta the population consisted of three classes, strictly distinct from one another: 1. Spartiatæ (Σπαρτιᾶται, comprising δμοιοι,

² Cf. Becker, Charicles (trans.), 361; and Schoemann, Antiquities of Greece, I. 100 foll.

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¹ The Grecian statements concerning the epoch of Homer differ almost five hundred years from one another.

i. e. those having full rights, and $\delta \pi o \mu \in loves$ i. e. those of less means, who could not furnish the required contribution to the Syssites) divided into three Phylæ, each composed of 10 Obæ (¿βaí); these were the Dorian conquerors, who occupied the fertile portions of the Laconian territory, the valley of the Eurotas, and the lowlands extending to the sea; 2. Lacedæmonians or Periæci (περίοικοι, i. e. they who dwell round about), descendants of those Achæans who had submitted to the conquerors by treaties. They were free, but payed dues, as tributary property-holders and small land-owners, and were without political rights, but were, however, bound to military service; 3. Helots (from είλωτες, "prisoners"?), serfs of the state. They were divided among the Spartiatæ by lot, and tilled their lands, paying to their lords a fixed portion of the harvest. The number of the Periceci was almost four times that of the Spartiata, while the number of the Helots was, perhaps, from 2 to 3 times as great as that of the Periæci.

Constitution and Laws of Lycurgus. **820** (?).

Lycurgus (Λυκοῦργος), according to tradition of royal descent, and guardian of the young king Charilaus, arranged the relation of the three classes, as described above, according to settled principles. His code of laws was for the Spartiatæ alone. The form of government was an aristocratic republic, in spite of the two hereditary kings (generals, high priests, judges). Both kings must be of the Heraclid race, one a member of the Agidx (from Agis, son of Eurystheus), the other of the Eurypontidæ (from Eurypon, grandson of Procles; see p. 48). The Council of Elders (γερουσία, 28 Gerontes, at least 60 years of age, elected for life) under the two kings as presiding officers had: 1. the previous discussion of everything that was to be laid before the popular assembly; 2. jurisdiction over capital crimes. The popular assembly (ala), consisting of all Spartiate over thirty years of age, who had not lost their political rights, had no right of initiation, and decided without debate. At a later period the five Ephors, i. e. inspectors (for the 5 wards) who had probably existed before Lycurgus, acquired great power (p. 56).

Assignment of an hereditary landed estate to every Spartan family, which had lost its possessions since the conquest; equal division of the Helots, or slaves of the state, for the purpose of tilling these No new division of all landed property. 1 (Tradition makes Lycurgus divide the land into 9000 (4500?) lots for the Spartiatæ, and 30,000 for the Periceci.) Establishment of social unions or compulsory clubs (σκηναί), whose members ate together, even in time of peace: Phiditia or Syssitia. Children were brought up in common, and the young men of the Spartan warrior-nobles dwelt together. The Crypteia (κρυπτεία), an organized guard over the Helots by young No actual hunting of the Helots.2

Spartans.

3 Schoemann, Antiq. of Greece, I. 195.

776. First Olympiad, that is, the first year in which

¹ Grote, Hist. of Greece (Boston, 1851), II, 393 foll.

the name of the Olympian victor was recorded. (The first was Coroibus.)

Olympian games (raised to greater importance since 820, by the participation of Sparta?); Nemean games since 573, in honor of Zeus, Isthmean games (Poseidon, since 582), and Pythian games (Apollo, enlarged after 590). Oracle of Apollo at Delphi, founded, according to tradition, at the command of the god, by Cretans (i. e. Dorians) from Cnosus. Amphictyonies, societies for common worship (performance of sacrifices), the most important of which was the Delphic. 734. Foundation of Syracuse 1 by the Corinthian Archias.

743-724. (?) First Messianian war. Aristodēmus king of the Messenians. Defence of Ithome. Those Messenians that did not emigrate became tributary. A part of the land was confis-

cated as conquered territory.

708. Foundation of Tarentum by the Spartan Phalanthus.

645-628. Second Messenian war. Aristomenes. Defence of Ira (Elpa), for nine years. The Athenian bard Tyrtæus accompanied the Spartans. After the fall of Ira the greater part of the Messenians fled to Sicily; Zancle, also, was occupied by them, but does not appear to have received the name Messana before the fifth century. The remaining Messenians became Helots.

In Athens government of the nobles (Eupatridæ) since the death of Codrus (1068?). The chief officers of state were the Archons, at first (1067-753) chosen for life, from the family of Codrus exclusively, afterwards (752-683) elected for ten years, the first four only being of the family of Codrus, the rest taken from the Eupatridæ in general.

From 682 on there were nine archons chosen every year, and serving only one year, taken from the Eupatridæ alone, and chosen by them alone. These were: 1. Archon Eponymus (i. e. he from whom the year is named), the presiding officer. 2. Basileus, i. e. king of the sacrifices, high priest. 3. Polemarchus, at first leader of the army, afterwards, when the military command was entrusted to Strateges by turn, only superintendent of military affairs; the other six were Thesmothetæ, judges, heads of the department of justice.

- 624 (621?). Laws of the Archon Draco. No alteration of the constitution, only reform of the criminal law, and the law relating to debts, introducing great severity, frequent use of the death penalty, and heavy fines. Hence later known as the "Law of Draco, written with blood."
- 612. Insurrection of Cylon, who, with the assistance of his father-in-law *Theagenes*, tyrant of Megara, seized the Acropolis. Cylon was driven into banishment by the Archon Megacles, of the family of the Alcmaonidae, and his followers were put to

² According to Duncker, Gesch. des Altherth., and Curtius, I. 240. According to the older but very doubtful assumption, 685-668.

8 Holm, Gesch. Siciliens, I. 200.

¹ Concerning the date of the foundation, see Holm, Gesch. Siciliens, I.

death while clinging for protection to the altars. On account of this sacrilege the Archons for the year were banished. Religious purification of Athens by *Epimenides* of Cnossus.

Solon, of the family of the Nelidæ, gained great influence by the recapture of Salamis, which had been taken by the Megaræans,

and through his share in the

600-590. First sacred war against Crisa and Cirrha, whose inhabitants had robbed the temple of Apollo in Delphi. The Amphyctyonies destroyed both cities after a long contest; the inhabitants were enslaved and their land consecrated to the Pythian Apollo.

Growing dissatisfaction in Athens with the government of the nobility, and internal disorders. The citizens were divided into three parties: 1. The great land-owners of the plain (οἱ ἐκ τοῦ πεδίου), the Eupatridæ. 2. The peasants of the mountainous districts (διάκριοι).

3. The inhabitants of the coast ($\pi d\rho a \lambda o \iota$), a well-to-do middle class.

by a special enactment to negotiate between the aristocracy and the people, proposed and carried out at first the Seisachtheia (i. e. the removal of burdens), whereby debts secured by mortgage were reduced about 27% by the introduction of a new standard of coinage; the Attic or Eubæan talent (\$1078.87) instead of the Aginetan talent (\$1630.50); personal security for debts was abolished, and all money fines as yet unpaid were remitted. Amnesty for all who had been deprived of their political rights (ἄτιμοι). Return of the Alcmæonidæ.

The Constitution and Laws of Solon were established for the citizens ($\pi o \lambda i \tau a \iota$) only. Excluded from all political rights were: 1. The metœci ($\mu \acute{\epsilon} \tau o \iota \kappa o \iota$, foreigners not citizens, but living in Athens under protection of the government), who were regarded in law as minors, and required to be represented by a patron ($\pi \rho o \sigma \tau d \tau \eta s$) who was a citizen, in all legal transactions. 2. The slaves ($\delta o \hat{\nu} \lambda o \iota$).

The two latter classes formed the great majority of the inhabitants. In her most prosperous days the *citizens* of Athens may be estimated at 90,000, the *metæci* at 45,000, the slaves at 360,000. So that in the period of most extreme democracy the sovereign people formed

a small minority of the population. 2

Division of all citizens, for purposes of military service and the exercise of political rights, into classes, according to income received from property in land, no regard being paid to movable property of any kind. The unit of measure was the *medimnus* (52.53 liter), for grain and vegetables; the *metretes* (39.39 liter), for wine and olive oil. The following four classes were formed:—

1. Pentakosiomedimni, men whose estates brought in a minimum of

500 medimni and metretes.

¹ According to Curtius, Hist. of Greece, I. 281. The date formerly accepted was 596-586.

² Cf. Schoemann, Antiq. of Greece, I. 348, 353.

2. Knights (inneîs), yield of estates 300-500 medimni.

3. Zeugitæ (i. e. they who work their land with one span of mules), yield of estates at least 150 medimni.

4. Thetes, comprising all who owned land yielding less than 150 medimni, or possessed no land, but were either day laborers in the

country, or artisans, sailors, tradesmen in the eity.

Taxation consisted in the duty of the citizens, as arranged in these four classes, to systematically supply ships, horses, and arms for military service. The members of the first three classes served as hoplites (δπλίται), heavy armed foot-soldiers; members of the first two classes served also in case of need as cavalry, furnishing their own horses, while members of the first class furnished ships for the fleet at their own expense, for which purpose they were enrolled in 48 naucrarise. the thetes were to be called upon to serve as light-armed foot, or upon the fleet, only to defend the country from invasion. There was no other regular taxation of citizens; state officials served without pay, and the other expenses of the commonwealth were covered by the yield of the mines, which were state property, by fines, by a polltax laid on the metæci, and by the harbor dues. When extraordinary taxes were necessary, they were adjusted on the basis of the classes described above, the fourth class, however, being exempt.

After the time of Solon, the nine archons were taken from the first class; every citizen had a vote in their election. The council (βουλή) of 400, formerly chosen from the Eupatridæ alone, was henceforward open to all citizens of the first three classes over thirty years old. The popular assembly (ἐκκλησία) consisted of all citizens over twenty years

old.

The Areopagus (from 'Aρειος πάγος,¹ Hill of Ares, or Mars), the ancient court which had jurisdiction over murder and arson, and a general supervision over the entire administration of the state, was, after this time, composed of archons who had retired from office. Legal matters were adjusted by the heliasts (ἡλιασταί, so called from the halls, ἡλιαία, where they sat), bodies having something of the nature of both judge and jury, and consisting of citizens over thirty years old, chosen by the thesmothetæ, out of a list of 6000 citizens which was formed by lot.

This timocratic constitution of Solon paved the way from aristocracy to democracy. In itself it was essentially conservative, since the larger landed estates were nearly all in the hands of the nobles. Solon also established a code of laws for regulating the entire civil

life, which was not completed until later.

Solon left Athens for ten years. Travels in eastern Asia, Crete, and Egypt. New party divisions in Athens. The nobles were led by Lycurgus; the middle class by the Alcmæonid Megăcles; the poorer classes by Pisistrătus, who, in spite of the opposition of Solon, who had returned to Athens and was now an old man, constantly gained new supporters, and finally made himself master of the Acropolis.

The hill only was so called by the ancients. The court was known as η ἐν ᾿Αρείφ πάγφ βουλή.

560-527. Pisistratus (Πεισίστρατος), tyrant of Athens.

Emigration of Athenian nobles, under *Miltiades the elder*, to the Thracian Chersonese. Solon left Athens again and went to Asia Minor. Conversation with Cræsus in Sardes (see p. 26). He died

(559) at Soli, in Cyprus (?).

Pisistratus ruled in Athens under the forms of the Solonian constitution, which he did not revoke. He managed that the people should always choose archors who suited him. Driven out by a coalition of the nobles and the moderates, 559, he returned five years later (554). A second time exiled in 552, he again regained his power after eleven years absence, and ruled without further interruption from 541 to 527. New emigration of noble families, particularly that of the Alcmoonida. Pisistratus conducted his government until his death, with mildness and wisdom, and bequeathed it to his son,

527-510. Hippias (' $I\pi\pi las$), under whom

519. Platææ seceded from the Bæotian League and entered into alliance with Athens. The Bæotians were defeated by the Athenians. Hippias conducted the government after the manner of his father, until his brother, Hipparchus, was murdered by Harmodius ('Αρμόδιος) and Aristogīton ('Αριστογείτων) in 514. (See Thucydides, VI. 54–59, where he criticises the traditional tale of Harmodĭus and Aristogīton.) Hippias took a cruel revenge, was driven out of the city by the exiled nobles (Clisthenes at the head of the Alcmæonidæ) in connection with a Spartan army under Cleoměnes. He took refuge with Darius, king of Persia.

509. Reforms of Clisthenes (Κλεισθένης), son of Megacles, grandson of Clisthenes, of Sicyon.

This was not only a change in the constitution, but a social reform as well. The constitution of Solon was not, however, repealed, but only further developed in a democratic manner, without as yet introducing equal political rights of all citizens. The Solonian arrangement of classes for purposes of taxation remained; the archonship was as before restricted to the first class, and membership of the council to the first three classes.

With the consent of the Delphic oracle, now indebted to the Alcmæonidæ, for the erection of a new temple, the four old Athenian tribes (φυλαί), Geleontes, Hoplites, Argădeis, Ægicores (p. 45), which Solon had left in existence, were set aside, and there were substituted for them ten new tribes, which were political and religious unions. These new tribes did not form connected territorial divisions. Each tribe consisted of ten demes, or local communities, which, however, were not contiguous, but were scattered about the country and interspersed with demes belonging to other tribes. In all there were 100 demes, later 174. This arrangement was designed to break up the local influence of the aristocracy, and put an end to the old patriarchal condition of things, whereby only nobles and large land-owners

¹ Duncker, IV. 454; Schoemann, Antiq. of Greece, I. 369.

could hold the position of demarch ($\delta \eta \mu \alpha \rho \chi \sigma s$), the presiding officer of a community.

Henceforward every two demes formed a naucrary, which was expected to fit out and man a trireme (a vessel with three banks of oars); whereas the old division of Attica, made in 682, into 48 naucraries, had been based on the old politico-religious division into tribes and phratries. These phratries ($\phi parplai$, 12), the subdivisions of the old tribes ($\phi v \lambda al$), were untouched by the reform of Clisthenes, but they were reduced to the condition of religious corporations for keeping lists of births, marriages, and deaths, but without political importance.

The council (Boulh) was increased from 400 to 500 members, fifty for each tribe; and each of these sets of fifty presided in the council for the tenth part of a year (prytany, **poravela*); the members of these presiding committees of fifty were called prytanies. Instead of four popular assemblies in a year, as formerly, ten were held henceforward.

507. The Athenian nobility, headed by *Isagŏras*, with the help of a Spartan army under Cleomenes, brought about a short reaction. Clisthenes fled; the Acropolis was delivered to the Spartans by a treacherous archon. A revolt of the Athenian populace compelled Cleomenes to make a disgraceful capitulation: withdrawal of the Spartans without arms, and surrender of the leaders of the aristocracy. The latter were put to death, and Clisthenes was recalled.

506. An expedition of the Spartans against Athens under their kings, Cleomènes and Demerātus, at the head of their Peloponnesian allies, was broken up by the sudden withdrawal of the Corinthians and the lack of harmony between the Spartan kings. The allies of the Spartans, the Bæotians and the Chalcidians from Eubæa, were defeated by the Athenians. The latter conquered a part of Eubæa, and apportioned 4000 peasant holdings among Attic farmers, who retained their Athenian citizenship.

The Athenian democracy derived an accession of strength from a reduction in the powers of the archons. The place of holding the popular assembly was changed from the market-place (àyopá), where, according to a custom sanctified by its antiquity, the first archon presided, to the rocky hill of the Pnyx; and the duty of presiding in the popular assembly and in the council was fixed upon an officer (ἐπιστάτης), who was chosen by lot from the prytany, for the time This officer also held the being, and who was changed every day. keys of the Acropolis and of the archives. It is uncertain how far Clisthenes had introduced the use of the lot, in selecting state officials (of course, only from the numbers of qualified candidates). Election of ten Strategi, one from each tribe, each of whom had by turns the chief command of the army, which formerly belonged to the archon polemarchus. The right of appeal from the decision of the thesmothetæ to the heliasts, which had been introduced before Solon for certain cases, was now extended to all cases. Establishment of the ostracism (δστρακισμός, used until 417), i. e. the power of the sovereign popular assembly to decree, by means of a secret ballot,

with bits of pottery (δστρακα), the banishment of any citizen who en-

dangered the public liberty, without process of law.1

In Peloponnesus, during this period of internal development at Athens, Sparta had become the first power. Soon after the first Messenian war, an essential increase in the powers of the Ephors had taken place (under king Theopompus). About 560, another reform had been accomplished by the Geront Chilon, with the aid and religious consecration of *Epimenides* of *Cnossus*, which completed the aristocratic form of government at Sparta, and gave increased strength to the commonwealth. The Ephors received an extraordinary disciplinary power over every individual, not excepting even the kings. The power of the latter gradually dwindled to a shadow. After the victory at Thyrea (549), the power of Argos, which in the seventh century had again attained, under King Phedon, a transient increase, was broken, and the Argive league was dissolved. The Spartan state, which was everywhere the opponent of tyranny and the protector of republican-aristocratic governments, became the leader of a league of the Peloponnesian states, and claimed the Hegemony over all the Hellenic cantons.

THIRD PERIOD.

From the beginning of the Persian wars to the loss of independence by the Battle of Chæronea. 500-338.

500-449. Persian wars.

500-494. Revolt of the Ionian Greeks against the Persians (p. 28). The assistance rendered them by Athens and Eretria was the immediate cause of the attempt of the Persians to subjugate European Greece.

493-479. Attack of the Persians upon the Greeks.

493 (492?). First expedition of the Persians against Greece, under Mardonius.

The land force subdued the coast of *Thrace*; the fleet conquered the island of *Thasos*. Alexander, king of Macedonia, submitted voluntarily. The Persian army, surprised by a Thracian tribe, suffered great loss; the fleet was for the most part destroyed by a storm off the promontory of *Athos*. Mardonius thereupon decided to return.

Construction of citadels on the Thracian coast to serve as points of support in future campaigns: Byzantium, Sestos, Abdēra, received

Persian garrisons.

491. The Persian heralds, who required signs of submission (water and earth), were sacrilegiously murdered at Sparta and Athens. The Cyclades and Ægina promised submission to Persia. The Athenians received from the Spartans Æginetan hostages.

490. Second expedition of the Persians against Greece un-

¹ The ostracism was in no sense a sentence or a juridical decision, but a purely political act of the highest power in the state.

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der Artaphernes (the young nephew of Darius) and an older general, the Mede Datis.

A fleet of 600 triremes and the same number of transports, with 100,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry on board, crossed the Ægean sea. After destroying the city of Naxos, the Persians landed in Eubæa. The city of *Eretria* was stormed, and taken by treachery; those of the inhabitants who were not put to death were sent as prisoners to the great king at Susa. By the advice of Hippias (p. 54) the Persians landed on the east coast of Attica, and encamped in the vicinity of Marăthon.

At Athens the entire military power of the city (9-10,000 Hoplites) was called to arms under the ten Strategi of the ten tribes, among whom were Aristides, Themistocles, and Miltiades (the younger), who had been recalled from the Chersonese. The Athenians crossed the Brilessus and advanced to meet the Persians; they encamped in face of the enemy for nine days in a position strengthened by entrenchments, and whence they covered the road to Athens. Reinforced by 1000 Plateans, they attacked the Persians without waiting for the arrival of the assistance which had been sought from Sparta. It is probable that the Persians had at this time embarked a portion of their army, especially the cavalry, in order to attempt a second landing in the immediate neighborhood of Athens. hard fighting the Athenians defeated the enemy in the

490. 12 September. Battle of Marathon, under the leadership of Miltiades.

The plan of the Persians to surprise Athens from the sea was prevented by a forced march of the army back to the city.

sian fleet returned to Asia Minor. Hippias died in Lemnos.

Ill-considered and unsuccessful attack of Miltiades, who had been clothed with unrestricted power as military commander, upon Paros. Miltiades, on his return to Athens wounded, was brought to trial at the complaint of Xanthippus, and condemned to pay the costs of the expedition, amounting to fifty talents, which sum was paid by his son Cimon, after the death of his father.

Aristides and Themistocles were now the leading statesmen at Athens. The latter devoted special attention to increase and improvement of the fleet, the necessity of which was proved to the Athenians by an unsuccessful war with Ægina, which occurred at this time, and for which they were obliged to hire ships from the Corinthians.² On the motion of Themistocles, the income from the silver works at Laurium were spent upon the fleet, and 20 triremes were built every year.

As the growing rivalry between Aristīdes and Themistocles endangered the commonweal, at the suggestion of the council the assembly decided between the two men by the ostracism (p. 55). Aristides was condemned to ten years' exile from

Athens by more than 6000 votes.

1 Duncker, Gesch. d'Alterthum, IV. 673. Curtius, Hist. of Greece, II. 246.

² Curtius, Hist. of Greece, II. 262.

Themistocles urging the fortification of Piræus, a strong wall was built, the foundations of which are yet visible, which also enclosed the small harbors of Munychia and Zea on the southeast of Piræus. Radical reform of the naval department. The naucraries (p. 55), which had not been able to furnish all the ships needed by the state, since the year 500 B. C., were dissolved, and their place supplied by a new arrangement known as the trierarchies. The building of ships and the supply of the more essential portions of their equipment were undertaken by the state; the completion of the equipment, the repairs, and the supplies of the crew, during service, of one ship was assigned as a service due the state (λειτουργία) to one well-to-do citizen, who in return was appointed trierarch, or commander-in-chief of the Whereas in the naucraries the expenses of the ships had fallen exclusively upon the Pentakosiomedimini (i. e. the large landowners, s. 53), and all citizens, whether land-owners or not, whose property exceeded a certain standard could be called upon for this purpose, and were entitled to the honor of the trierarchy.

481-480. Third expedition of the Persians against Greece under Xerxes.

This expedition, planned by Darius, was carried out by his son Xerxes, after extensive preparations. *Pisistratus*, son of Hippias, and Demarātus, the deposed king of Sparta, accompanied Xerxes on the expedition.

Construction of a canal at Acanthus by the force on the fleet and the subject *Thracians*, to avoid the storms about Mt. Athos. Bridge over the Hellespont, between *Sēstos* and *Abydos*, built by Phænician and Egyptian laborers. Erection of large magazines in Asia Minor and on the coast of Thracia.

481. The troops from the eastern and southern parts of the empire assembled at *Critalla* in *Cappodocia*, whence they were con-

ducted to Sardes by the king in person.

480. In the spring departure from Sardes (about 900,000 men). March through Mysia. Passage of the Hellespont, lasting seven days. March through Thrace and Macedonia. Passage of the fleet (more than 1300 triremes, among which were over 400 Grecian ships from Asia Minor) through the canal at Acanthus.

After the Greeks had given up the plan of defending the pass of Tempe, the Persian army traversed Thessaly without opposition. Not only the Thessalians, but also the Bæotian cities, with the exception of Platææ and Thespiæ, sent the king symbols of submission.

480. July. Battle of the Greeks under Leonidas, at Thermopylæ (i. e. warm gate, a pass at the foot of Callidromus, near hot springs) against the army of Xerxes.

The Spartan king Leonidas, defended the pass of Thermopylæ, with about 6000 Hoplites, among whom were 300 Spartiatæ, and 1000 Lacedæmonian Periæci, against the overwhelming force of the

¹ Boeckh, Public Economy of the Athenians (Lamb's trans.), 359, 695-745.

Persians, while 1000 Phocians guarded the footpath over Œta. The Persians, guided over this path by the traitor Ephialtes, drove back the Phocians and attacked the Grecian army in the rear. Leonidas ordered the Periœci and the troops of the allies to retire, and died a heroic death with his 300 Spartiatæ and 700 Thespians, who refused to leave him. The Thebans, who had fought under Leonidas against their will, laid down their arms; part of them were cut down: part branded, at the king's command, and sent back to Thebes. At the same time

480. Indecisive sea-fight at Artemisium,

a promontory and temple at the northern point of Eubæa. During the first day about 280 Grecian ships, under conduct of the Spartan Eurybiades, fought against the Persian fleet, under Achæmenes, which was weakened through losses by storms, and the dispatch of 200 ships around the southern end of Eubæa. Night put an end to the indecisive battle. Loss of the 200 Persian ships which were sent around Eubæa.

On the second day the Grecian fleet, reinforced by 53 triremes, had a victorious contest with Cilician ships.

On the third day, also, the battle remained undecided, although

the Persians attacked with their whole fleet.

On receipt of the news of the capture of the pass of Thermopylæ, the Grecian fleet hastened to the Gulf of Salamis. The Peloponnesian army, having established itself on the isthmus, began the construction of a wall across the isthmus, instead of coming to the assistance of the Athenians.

Xerxes traversed central Greece, without meeting with resistance. Locrians and Dorians submitted. He ravaged the land of the Phocians, the detachment sent to Delphi was, however, driven back, with the help of a thunderstorm. Becotia was treated as a friendly coun-

try. Thespiæ and Platææ alone were destroyed.

The Athenians abandoned their city, leaving only a garrison in the Acropolis. The fortifications of the Piræus being incomplete, the fleet conveyed the old men, women, and children, with all personal effects, to Salămis, Ægina, and Argolis, in which latter place the Athenian children were provided with schooling at the expense of the inhabitants. Return of the exiles permitted. Xerxes entered the city, the Acropolis was taken by storm, the temples thereupon and the city-burned to the ground.

480. 20 Sept. Naval battle of Salamis.

The Grecian fleet, now united and strongly reinforced (378 triremes, 7 fifty-oared vessels), was under the command of the Spartan
Eurybiades. The Grecians, being through the contrivance of the
strategus Themistocles, surrounded by the enemy and forced to fight,
won a brilliant victory over the Persian fleet, which still numbered
750 (?) vessels. The island of Psyttalēa, which the Persians had occupied, was recaptured by Aristīdes, who had hastened from Ægina to
take part in the combat. The Greeks lost 40, the Persians 200, ships.
The Persian fleet anchored in the bay of Phalēron. Retreat, not

flight, of Xerxes. Mardonius was left in Thessaly with the best part

of the army (260,000 men).

480. Nov. Xerxes, after suffering great loss through drought and lack of provisions, reached the Hellespont, where he found the fleet, which transported the army, the bridge having been carried away by storms.

The Grecian fleet, instead of pursuing the Persians, as Themistocles wished, laid unsuccessful siege to the city of *Andros*. The Athenians returned to their city, and at once began its reconstruction.

479. Fourth expedition of the Persians against Greece.

After Mardonius had in vain offered the Athenians, through Alexander of Macedonia, a separate peace with recognition of their independence, he entered Attica and advanced on Athens, strengthened by a reinforcement under Artabāzus, and by contingents from his allies in northern Greece, Thessalians, Bæotians, a part of the Phocians, and the Argives. The Athenians, being a second time faithlessly left in the lurch by the Spartans, retired again to Salamis. Whatever had been rebuilt in the city, the Persians destroyed. Finally the whole Peloponnesian force of 30,000 hoplites and twice as many light-armed troops having crossed the isthmus, Mardonius retired, and took up a favorable position in Bæotia on the Asōpus. More than 10,000 Athenians, Platæans, and Thespians joined the Hellenic army. Pausanias was the leader of the Spartans and of the whole force. He commanded the most imposing army that Hellas had ever seen. The Hellenes, however, had no cavalry.

479. Sept. Battle of Platææ.

After long delay and much marching back and forth, Pausanias, who had twice entrusted the most dangerous positions to the Athenians under the command of Aristides, decided to retreat without offering battle; being, however, attacked by Mardonius and compelled to defend himself, he fought bravely at the head of the Peloponnesians, and, being well supported by the Athenians, gained a decisive victory. Mardonius fell. Rout of the Persians; their camp captured by the Greeks.

The Grecian army advanced before Thebes; the leaders of the Per-

sian party were given up, and executed on the isthmus.

At the beginning of the campaign against Mardonius a Grecian fleet under the Spartan king, Leotychidas, — Xanthippus commanding the Athenians under him, — had been dispatched to patrol the Ægean Sea. At the call of the Samians the fleet sailed for Asia Minor, and took the offensive against the Persians.

479-449. Offensive war of the Grecians against the Persians. The Persian admiral, *Mardontes*, distrusting the Greeks of Asia Minor, who were in his fleet, did not venture to accept the naval battle offered him near Samos. He beached his fleet at the promontory of *Mycăle*, opposite Samos, and entrenched himself. The Grecian marines landed, and utterly defeated the Persians in the

479. Battle of Mycale

(on the day of the battle of Platææ?), captured the camp and burned the Persian ships. Several of the island cities, particularly Samos, Lesbos, and Chios, and afterwards the Grecian coast towns of Asia Minor, joined the Hellenic league. The Peloponnesians returned home; the Athenians and Ionians conquered Sēstos in the Thracian Chersonese.

Rebuilding and enlargement of Athens, which, in spite of the objection of the Peloponnesians, was surrounded with strong walls. (Stratagem of Themistocles.) Completion of the fortification of

Piræus, where a large city grew up.

478 (?). Reform of Aristides, from which dates the real supremacy of the democracy in Athens. The state offices were opened to all four classes alike (p. 53).

Under the command of *Pausanias*, the united fleet of Peloponnesians, Athenians, and Ionic Greeks of Asia Minor conquered Byzantium, and acquired a rich booty. The overbearing demeanor of *Pausanias* toward the other members of the league, and the winning manner of the Athenian leaders, *Aristides* and *Cimon*, brought i about that after the recall of Pausanias by the Ephors

475 (?). The Hegemony (chief conduct of the war) was transferred from Sparta to Athens, and a Hellenic confederacy (symmachy) was formed, the political head of which was Athens, and whose religious centre was the temple of Apollo in *Delos*, where the treasury of the league was also established. The smaller states contribute money only, instead of furnishing contingents of ships.

Rivalry between Themistocles and Cimon. The supporters of the latter procured the ostracism of Themistocles. He retired to Argos. While there suspicion attached to him of being implicated in the treasonable intrigues of Pausanias. The latter, threatened with imprisonment by the Ephors, took refuge in the temple of Athēna at Sparta, and there died of starvation (467?). Themistocles, driven from Argos, went to Corcyra, thence to Epirus, and finally to Susa, where he offered the Persian monarch his services against his native land. Artaxerxes I. (p. 28) gave him a princely domain in Asia Minor, where he died (460).

After the retirement of Aristīdes from political life, and his death, which occurred soon after (467?), Cimon became the leader of the Athenian commonwealth. He began the construction of the two long walls ($\tau \grave{a} \sigma \kappa \acute{\epsilon} \lambda \eta$), one of which connected the city with Piræus, and the

other with Phaleron.1

Cimon, the victorious leader of the fleet of the league, captured those places on the Thracian coast which were still occupied by the Persians (Eion, 469); chastised the pirates of Scyra, and carried the bones of Theseus to Athens; captured Naxos, which had revolted

¹ Oncken (Athen u. Hellas, I. 72) holds that the walls were begun during the banishment of Cimon; so also Ad. Schmidt, Das perikleische Zeitalter, I. 57, who, however, places the banishment of Cimon in 461.

from the league, and now lost its independence, as punishment (467); defeated the fleet and army of the Persians in the

Battle of the Eurymedon, **465.**

in Pamphylia. Cimon conquered the Chersonese and punished the island of Thasos, which had seceded from the confederacy.

Earthquakes in Sparta; insurrection of the Laconian helots, a portion of whom joined the Messenian helots and occupied ${\it Ith\"ome}.$

464–456. Third Messenian war,

in which the Spartans were forced to implore the help of Athens, which was furnished at the instance of Cimon, but was afterwards sent back by the suspicious Spartans (461). The Athenians, offended, allied themselves with the Argives, the principal enemies of the Spartans in the Peloponnesus.

In Athens, rivalry between Cimon, head of the aristocratic party, and Pericles, the son of Xanthippus, leader of the democracy. The latter party succeeded in establishing the payment of citizens serving in the army, or as judges, and the bestowal of alms of the state upon the poor at festivals out of the public treasury. The beginning of

the decline of the Athenian democracy.

The Athenians sent aid to the Egyptian rebel Inaros (p. 28) against the Persians. The expedition came to an unfortunate end, the Athenian army being surrounded on one of the islands of the Nile, and compelled to surrender.

460. The law of *Ephialtes* took from the court of Areopagus the censorship over the state, which had been intrusted to it by Solon (p. 53), and limited its sphere of action to its judicial powers.

459. After this democratic victory Cimon was banished from Athens

by ostracism.

About this time (between 460 and 454), the treasury of the confederacy was transferred from Delos to the Acropolis of Athens. The contributions of the members of the league thereby acquired the character of a tribute paid to the Athenians. The confederates became for the most part subjects of Athens, which became the capital of a great coast and island empire.1

Megăra threatened by Corinth. Ægīna and Epidaurus placed under the protection of the Athenians, who connected Megăra

with its port, Nisæa, by long walls.

The Athenians, after suffering a defeat in Argolis, gained two battles at sea over the allied Corinthians, Epidaurians, and Æginetans; blockaded Ægīna, and energetically defended Megăra. This great development of power, on the part of Athens, caused a

War of the Spartans and Bootians against **457–451.** Athens.

A Spartan army under Nicomedes, the guardian of the young king, Plistoanax, had been sent to Central Greece to protect the Dorian

¹ Curtius, Hist. of Greece, II. 378.

tetrapolis against the attacks of the Phocians, who were compelled to give up their conquests. The Spartan army, cut off from a return over the isthmus by the Athenians, retired to Bœotia, where it assisted the Bœotians against Athens.

457. Battle of Tanagra, a Spartan victory, which they neglected to utilize. They concluded an armistice with Athens and re-

turned to Sparta.

Very soon the Athenians again invaded Bœotia, defeated the Thebans at Œnophÿta (456), and replaced the aristocratic governments in most cities by democratic, which were friendly towards Athens. The Phocians and Opuntian Locrians joined Athens. Ægina was forced to surrender to the Athenians after a long siege, gave up its ships of war, and became tributary (456). The Athenians laid waste the coasts of Laconia, and conveyed the Messenians, whom the Spartans had granted a free departure from Ithōme, to Naupactus (p. 40), where they formed a settlement. Reconciliation between Pericles and Cimon; the latter recalled after an exile of nearly five years (454). The influence of Cimon brought about an

451 (?). Armistice between Athens and Sparta for five years, and a new naval expedition against the Persians. Cimon conducted 200 ships to Cyprus. He died during the siege of Citium. After his death his fleet gained a brilliant victory over the Persian (i. e. Phœnician, Cilician) fleet, and the hostile troops

on the land in the double

449. Battle of Salamis (Σαλαμίς) in Cyprus.

New party struggles in the Bœotian cities. The aristocrats, who had been driven out by the Athenians, returned; the Athenians, called to the assistance of the democrats, were defeated at Coronea (447). The old aristocratic constitutions were restored, not only in Bœotia but also in Locris, Phocis, and Megăra, which became free from the supremacy of Athens. After the expiration of the five years' armistice the Spartans sent an army under their young king, Plistoanax, to Attica, in order to assist the Eubœans in a revolt against the Athenians. Pericles bribed the advisers of the young king and secured the withdrawal of the army; then hastening back to Eubœa with an Athenian army, he subdued the island anew (446). Second assignment of Eubœan lands to Athenian citizens.

445. Thirty years' peace between Athens and Sparta. By this peace, or more properly armistice, the Peloponnesian and Athenian leagues acknowledged themselves to be two distinct and independent confederacies.

About this time, or at least after the death of Cimon, negotiations for peace were opened between Athens and Persia, and an Athenian embassy under Callias was sent to Susa. No formal peace, however, was concluded, but peaceable intercourse under a tacit recognition of existing political relations gradually took the place of a state of war. The Athenians gave up Cyprus and sent the Egyptian rebels no further aid. They continued to control the Ægean Sea, and the Grecian coast towns of Asia Minor were mostly their allies or subjects, — in any case, practically free from the Persian sceptre. The

so-called peace of Cimon, wherein the king of Persia is said to have formally acknowledged the independence of the Greeks of Asia Minor, and promised to send no more ships of war into the Ægean, would say to be the invention of a letter time.

would seem to be the invention of a later time.1

444. At Athens Thucydides (the son of *Melasias*, not the historian of the same name), became the leader of the aristocratic party. His party attempted to secure the ostracism of *Pericles*, but when the votes were counted it was found that Thucydides was banished.

444-429. Athens under the administration of Pericles, who, although never archon, conducted the government of the cities by his influence in the assembly, and in his official capacity as strategus, as superintendent of the finances (Tamias or Epimeletes), and as superintendent of public buildings and other public works.

440-439. Revolt and subjugation of Samos.

443. Foundation of Thurii in Southern Italy on the ruins of Sybaris.

437. Foundation of Amphipolis on the Strymon. Completion of the fortifications of Athens by the construction of a third long wall, parallel with the first leading to the Piræus (p. 61). Magnificent buildings, especially on the Acropolis: the Hall of the Caryatides in the Erechtheion, the Propylæa, the Parthenon, or Hecatompedon, the bronze statue of Athena Promachos, a co-

lossal figure over 50 feet high.

By the Age of Pericles is commonly understood the whole time of his political activity (465-429), or even the entire period from the Persian expeditions to the Peloponnesian war. This was the most brilliant epoch in the history of Athens, not only in its political power, its trade and commerce, but in art and literature. The tragic dramatists: Æschylus, 525-456; Sophocles, 496-405; Euripides, 480-406; later the comic dramatist, Aristophanes 456 (?)-380? The historians: Herodotos of Halicarnassus, 484-424?; Thucydides, 471-396? The sculptor: Phidias; the architects Ictinus, Callicrates, and Mnesicles; the painter Polygnotus. The philosophers, Socrates, 469-399, Zeno of Elea, Anaxagoras, Protagoras. Aspasia of Miletus.

431-404. PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

Causes: Envy of the *Dorian* confederacy at the power of *Athens*, the ambition of the Athenians, and the discontent of those of their

allies who had been reduced to subjects.

Immediate causes: 1. The interference of Athens in the war between Corcyra and Corinth (435-432), which had broken out concerning Epidamnus (afterwards Dyrrhachium) in Illyria, a colony of Corcyra. The democrats of Epidamnus, hard pressed by the exiled nobles in alliance with Illyrian barbarians, implored aid from their

¹ Cf. Curtius, Hist. of Greece, II. 456 (after Dahlmann and Krüger). Other writers consider that a treaty was concluded. Cf. Hiecke, De Pace Cimonica, 1863. E. Müller, Uber den cimon Frieden, 1866-1869. Ad. Schmidt, Das perikleische Zeitalter.

mother city Corcyra in vain, but obtained help from Corinth, the mother city of Corcyra. Enraged at this, the Corcyraens took sides with the aristocracy of Epidamnus, defeated the Corinthians at Actium (435), and captured Epidamnus. Corinth and Corcyra vied with one another for help from Athens. The Athenians decided in favor of Corcyra, and took part at first with 10, afterwards with 30, ships in the battle of Sybŏta (432), between the Corinthians and Corcyraens, wherein the Corinthians, at first victorious, afterwards retired before the Athenians. 2. The inhabitants of Potidaea, a Corinthian colony on the peninsula of Chalcidice, revolted from the Athenian league (432), and received support from Corinth. The Corinthians were, however, defeated by the Athenians at Olynthus, and Potidaea was surrounded and besieged.

The Corinthians, supported by the Megareans, who (since 432?) had been excluded from all Attic harbors and markets, and by the Æginetans, entered a complaint against the Athenians at Sparta. The popular assembly at Sparta having voted that the Athenians had broken the treaty, the *Peloponnesian Congress* resolved on preparation

for war.

Military power of both parties: Achaia and Argos remained neutral at first. The Peloponnesians were joined by the Megareans, Bæotians, Opuntian Locrians, Phocians. Independent allies of the Athenians: Platææ, Corcyra, Zacynthus, Chios, Lesbos, Thessalians, Acarnanians. The Athenian league, including almost all the islands and coasts of the archipelago and the regions beyond, had been transformed, by naval stations and garrisons, into an extensive empire.

431. The war 1 began with the surprise of Platææ by the Thebans. The gates were opened by treachery; but the Thebans were driven out of the city; many were captured or cruelly slaughtered.

431-425. Five invasions of Attica by the Peloponnesians, 4 under the Spartan king Archidāmus, the 5th under Agis. While the Athenian fleet laid waste the coasts of Peloponnesus, the inhabitants of Attica took refuge in Athens, Piræus, or encamped between the long walls. The Æginetans were entirely driven away from their island by the Athenians, and their land divided among Athenian citizens. The country around Megăra was harried by an Athenian army.

430. A pestilence resembling the plague broke out at Athens, of

which

429. Pericles died.

In the spring of this year capture of *Potidæa*. Cleon ² came forward as the leader of the democratic party; the head of the aristocratic party was Nicias.

2 Not a tanner, but an owner of manufactories, who carried on his business

by means of slaves. Curtius, Hist. of Greece, III. 61.

¹ This first period of the Peloponnesian war, down to the peace of Nicias (421), commonly known as the Archidamian war, is called by Thucydides (V. 25) ὁ δεκαετὴς πόλεμος.

- 428. Revolt of Mytilene in Lesbos (Methymna remained faithful to the Athenians). Before the arrival of the help promised by
- 427. the Peloponnesians, Mytilene was compelled to surrender by the Athenians under Paches. The Athenian assembly decreed that all citizens of Mytilene should be put to death, a sentence which on the following day was restricted to the aristocrats. More than a thousand were slain, the city was razed, and the land on the island, with the exception of the territory of Methymna, divided among Athenian citizens.

427. Platææ forced to surrender. The survivors of its brave defenders, 225 in number, were executed by the Spartans. Bloody party contests in Corcyra, where victory at last remained with the democrats. Successful expedition of the Athenians under Demosthenes to assist the Acarnanians against the Ambraciots,

who received help from the Peloponnesians.

- 425. Demosthenes landed in Messenia and fortified the ruined fortress of Pylos. The Spartans under Brasidas occupied the island of Sphacteria, opposite Pylos. The Athenian fleet under Nicias cut off their retreat. Spartan envoys in Athens offered peace, but their proposals were rejected at the instigation of Cleon, who, being appointed by the people strategus in place of Nicias, took Sphacteria by storm, and brought 292 of the enemy, among whom were 120 Spartiatæ, with him to Athens. The Athenians threatened to put the prisoners to death whenever the Peloponnesians should invade Attica again.
- 424. The island of Cythera occupied by the Athenians. From Cythera and from Pylos, to which latter place the Athenians conveyed Messenians from Naupactus, the Laconian territory was harassed incessantly. The Athenians invaded Bœotia, but were defeated by the Bœotians at Delium (Socrătes, Alcibiădes). Expedition of the Spartans under Brasidas by land to Macedonia and Thrace, with the design of putting an end to the supremacy of the Athenians there. Revolt of several towns from Athens; Brasidas captured Amphipòlis, on account of which the Athenian general Thucydides (the historian), who lay with a squadron at Thasos, was banished. The Athenians sent Cleon to Thrace. Cleon was defeated in the

422. Battle of Amphipolis

by Brasidas, and fell during the flight. Brasidas died of his wounds.

421. Peace of Nicias,

concluded for fifty years. Both sides restored conquests and prisoners, a condition which was, however, but imperfectly executed. Although Sparta even entered into alliance with Athens to force this peace upon their confederates, the war broke out again in three years, when Alcibiades persuaded the Athenians to join the league which Argos had formed with several Peloponnesian states, in order to oppose the oppressive ascendancy of Sparta. The united Argives and Athenians were defeated in the

418. Battle of Mantinea.

By this victory the Spartans regained their supremacy in Peloponnesus.

416. The Athenians captured Melos and put all the citizens to death.

415-413. Expedition of the Athenians against Syracuse,

Suggested by the request of Egesta for help against Selinus and Syracuse (Hermocrates), which was granted by the advice of Alcibiades. A fleet of 134 triremes, carrying 36,000 men inclusive of sailors, among which number were 5100 hoplites, sailed for Sicily under Alcibiades, Nicias, and Lamachus. After the occupation of Naxos and Catana, Alcibiades was recalled to answer to a charge of participation in a sacrilege (mutilation of the Herma, ridiculing the Eleusinian mysteries). He went to Argos, was condemned to death in his absence, and his property was confiscated. Seeking revenge on his enemies, he forthwith went over to the side of Sparta.

414. Nicias gained a victory before Syracuse and besieged the city with some success. Death of Lamachus. At the advice of Alcibiades, the Spartans sent a small fleet under Gylippus to the assistance of Syracuse. The Athenians attacked the city

413. by storm, and were repulsed. They suffered from sickness and want. Reinforced by 73 triremes and 5000 hoplites under *Demosthenes*, they were nevertheless defeated in two naval battles in the harbor of Syracuse; their fleet was surrounded; the

413. remnants of their army on the retreat by land (on the Assina-Sept. rus) were in part cut to pieces, in part captured. Nicĭas and Demosthĕnes were executed in Syracuse; 7000 prisoners were sent to the quarries (λατομίαι).

413. By the advice of Alcibiades the Spartans occupied and forti-March. fied the village of Decelēa in Attica. The last nine years of the Peloponnesian war are therefore known as the

413-404. Decelean war.

The Spartans made forays from Decelēa into all parts of Attica.

Distress of the Athenians, flight of slaves, financial difficulties of the government. The influence of the aristocratic party revived. Establishment of a new board of ten councillors (πρόβουλοι).² Regulation of the finances. Renewed preparations for war. Alcibiades induced Chios, Erythræ, Clazomĕnæ, and Miletus to revolt. He was instrumental in forming an alliance between the Spartans, who declared their willingness to abandon to the Persian king all Greek cities formerly subject to him, and the Persian satrap, Tissaphernes, who paid a subsidy to the Spartans. A new Athenian fleet appeared off the coast of Asia Minor and defeated

412. the Peloponnesian fleet near *Miletus*, but was prevented from taking the city by a squadron from Syracuse. The Athenian fleet, increased to 104 ships, anchored off *Samos*. Alcibiădes,

1 Curtius, Hist. of Greece, III. 357.

² Their functions are a matter of dispute. Cf. Grote, History of Greece, VII. 362.

being suspected and maligned by the Spartans, went to Tissaphernes, over whom he soon exercised great influence. At the same time he intrigued with the oligarchs in the Athenian army, whom, however, he only kept in suspense and finally deceived. In the mean time

411. the oligarchs overthrew the democratic constitution at Athens by a coup d'état. A new oligarchical council of 400 citizens was established; the popular assembly was limited to 5000 members; the payment of all state salaries, with the exception of the pay of citizens serving in the army, was abol-The oligarchy entered upon negotiations for peace with Sparta, and endeavored to break up the new order of things by executions and banishments. Their rule, however, was of short duration. The army before Samos refused to recognize the alteration of the constitution; elected new leaders (Thrasybūlus) and recalled Alcibiades, who assumed command, but refused to lead the fleet against the oligarchs in Athens, and insisted that it should remain in the face of the enemy. At Athens the oligarchical rule of the new council of 400 was broken after it had lasted four months without direct interference on the part of the army; the old council of 500 was reëstablished; the popular assembly remained limited to The abolition of salaries was 5000 members (until 410?). not repealed.

The Spartans broke off all connection with Tissaphernes, and en-

tered into alliance with Pharnabazus, satrap of Bithynia.

The Athenians under Thrasybūlus defeated the Peloponnesian fleet under Mindarus and Pharnabāzus in the

411. Sea-fight at the promontory of Cynossema, near Abydos. July. Three months later Alcibiades defeated the Peloponnesians in a

411. Second sea-fight at Abydos.

Alcibiades, taken prisoner by Tissaphernes, soon escaped, assumed command of the Athenian fleet again, and annihilated the Peloponnesian fleet in the

410. Battle of Cyzicus,

Feb. where he also gained a brilliant victory over the enemy after he had escaped to the land. Having subdued the coasts of the 409. Hellespont and Propontis, and captured Byzantium,

408. Alcibiades returned to Athens in triumph.

June. The sentence of Alcibiades was repealed, and he was appointed commander by land and sea, with unlimited power. He guarded with the army the festal procession to Eleusis, which had been for a long time discontinued. Alcibiades conducted the Athenian fleet to Asia Minor. The Spartan, Lysander, had in the mean time assumed the command here, and the brother of the future king of Persia, Artaxerxes II., the younger Cyrus (son of Darius II.), a friend of the Spartans, had become satrap of Asia Minor. While Alcibiades was engaged on a foraging expedition in the country around Phocae, the

Athenian fleet was involved by the junior commanders in an engagement, and defeated by Lysander in the

407. Battle of Notium, in the gulf of Ephësus.

On account of this misfortune, Alcibiades was deposed from his command. He retired to the Hellespont, and died in 404.

The new Spartan admiral Callicratides, surrounded the Athenian fleet under Conon at Mytilene. The Athenians with the greatest exertions fitted out a new fleet, which hastened to the aid of Conon. The united Athenian fleet completely defeated the Peloponnesians in the great

406. Battle of Arginusæ,

Sept. (ai 'Apywowau, small islands off the coast of Asia Minor, east of Lesbos). Six of the victorious generals were sentenced to death in Athens for having abandoned shipwrecked troops in a storm and not buried the bodies, and were actually executed.

Lysander, again appointed admiral by the Spartans, defeated and annihilated the Athenian fleet in the

405. Battle of Ægospotami (Αἰγὸς ποταμοί, goat river), opposite Aug.? Lampsăcus. Conon escaped with eight ships. Slaughter of 3000 Athenian prisoners. Lysander, having first completely destroyed the Athenian power on the coasts and islands, and everywhere established oligarchical constitutions, appeared with the Peloponnesian fleet before Piræus, while the Peloponnesian army enclosed Athens on the land side. Starvation caused the

404. Surrender of Athens and end of the war.

April. The walls of Piræus, and the long walls between the city and the harbors, were torn down. All ships of war but twelve were delivered to the enemy. The democracy was overthrown, and the government entrusted to thirty men of the oligarchical party.

404-371. Second Hegemony of the Spartans.

404-403. Government of the so-called Thirty Tyrants, of whom the best known is Critias, at Athens.

The Thirty, instead of forming a new constitution, endeavored to secure the permanent control of the state, and to strengthen their power by receiving a Spartan garrison in the Acropolis, and by numerous executions. At last, one of the Thirty, Theramenes, was put to death at the instance of Critias. Thrasybulus assembled the democratic fugitives in Phyle, defeated the troops of the Thirty, and seized Piræus; Critias was slain. Ten more moderate oligarchs took the place of the Thirty. Through the mediation of Pausanias, king of Sparta, an understanding was reached between Thrasybūlus and the oligarchs in Athens. The remainder of the Thirty were put to death. General amnesty. Reëstablishment of a moderate democracy. The government was rearranged by the revision of the laws made by Euclides (403).

401-400. Retreat of the 10,000 under **Zenophon** (p. 29).

399. Socrates (469-399) executed in Athens by poison. His scholar, Plato (427-348).

- 399-394. War between the Spartans and Persians. The Persian satrap, Tissaphernes, attempted to punish the Greek cities of Asia Minor for their share in the expedition of the younger Cyrus. The Spartans came to the aid of the cities, at first under Thibron, then under Dercyllidas, finally under Agesilāus. The latter forced his way into Asia and defeated Tissaphernes, who was executed by command of his successor, Tithraustes. Persian gold produced the
- 395-387. Corinthian war against Sparta, whose harmosts (ἀρμοσταί, governors) had made themselves universally hated. Coalition of Thebes, Corinth, and Argos, joined by Athens. The Spartan

395. Lysander fell at Haliatus in Bœotia, in battle with the allies.

The Lacedæmonian fleet was defeated in the

- 394. Battle of Cindus by the Athenian Conon and the Persian satrap Pharnabazus. The Spartan harmosts were driven from the Grecian cities of Asia Minor. Agesilāus was recalled, traversed Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, and defeated the allies in the
- 394. Battle of Coronea in western Bœotia. Conon and the Persian satrap Pharnabāzus plundered the coasts of Laconia. Conon rebuilt the (2) long walls with Persian money. After some years of fighting, in which Iphicrates and Chabrias were the Athenian leaders, the
- 387. Peace of Antalcidas was concluded between the Grecian states and the Persians. It took its name from the Spartan admiral who was sent as envoy to Susa. The Grecian cities of Asia Minor and the islands of Clazomenæ and Cyprus were abandoned to the Persians. The Athenians retained control of Lēmnos, Imbros, and Scyros only; all other states and islands were to be independent under Spartan and Persian guaranty.
- 379-362. War between Thebes and Sparta, caused by the occupation of the $Cadm\bar{e}a$ in Thebes (383) by the Spartan Phabidas, who was urged to take this step by the aristocratic party in Thebes, as he was conducting an army through Baeotia against Olynthus.

The Theban democrats had taken refuge in Athens, whence under Pelopidas they liberated Thebes in 379 and compelled the Spartans to withdraw from the Cadmēa. Cleombrotus and Agesilāus were dispatched to Bœotia, but met with little success. The Spartans attempted to surprise Piræus. This induced the Athenians to enter into open alliance with Thebes. They founded a new confederacy (symmachy), embracing seventy communities, under more just conditions than those of the first league (378). The Spartans were repeatedly defeated at sea by the Athenians Chabrias, Phocion, and Timotheus. Peace between Sparta and Athens. Cleombrotus invaded Bœotia anew, but in the

371. Battle of Leuctra, he was defeated by Epaminondas, and fell on the field.

371-362. Hegemony of the Thebans.

370. First invasion of Peloponnesus by the Thebans, under Epaminondas and Pelopidas in order to protect the Arcadians, who had revolted from Sparta. Megalopolis founded. An attack by the Thebans on Sparta proved unsuccessful, but they ravaged Laconia and proclaimed the independence of the Messenians. Foundation of Messēne. The Athenians came to the aid of the Spartans. Retreat of the Thebans.

369. Second Theban invasion of Peloponnesus.

367. Third invasion. Sicyon revolted from Sparta. The third invasion produced a momentary alliance of Achaia and Thebes. The Corinthians and Phliasians concluded peace with Thebes. In the north the Thebans sent several expeditions against the tyrant Alexander of Pheræ for the liberation of the Thessalians. On the second expedition Pelopidas was captured, but soon set free by Epaminondas; on a new expedition he fell as victor at Cynocephălæ (κυνδς κεφαλαί).

Fourth expedition of the Thebans against Peloponnesus. Epam-

inondas fell in the

362. Battle of Mantinea as victor against the Spartans and their

allies (among others 6000 Athenians).

General peace between the Grecian states, which the Spartans alone refused to accept, not being willing to acknowledge the independence of Messenia. Agesilāus went to Egypt to the assistance of the rebels under Tachos, whose fleet was commanded by the Athenian Chabrias. Agesilāus died on the voyage home (358).

Rise of the Macedonian power.

- 359-336. Philip (Φίλιππος), son of Amyntas, had passed three years (368-365) in Thebes as a hostage, and had there learned to appreciate Grecian culture and military science through intercourse with Epaminondas and other men of note. After the death of his brother, Perdiccas, he succeeded him as king of the Macedonians at the age of twenty-three. Gifted with courage and a clear political insight, he strengthened the royal power in a country torn by party strife, defended the borders against the restless Pæonian and Illyrian tribes, and established a standing army (Phalanx). After he had given his own state a firm organization, he turned his attention to extending his power along the Thracian coast, and by cunning trickery encroached on the Athenian territory. He captured Amphipolis (357), Pydna, Potidæa, gained possession of the Thracian mines, concluded an alliance with Olynthus against the Athenians, and founded Philippi.1
- 357-355. Social war of the Athenian league against Athens. Since 378 Athens had regained much of her former influence. It was speedily lost. Chios, Cos, Rhodes, and Byzantium revolted. Chabrias perished in the harbor of Chios. Iphicrates and Timotheus, leaders of the Athenians. The latter were forced to acknowledge the independence of their former allies.
- 355-346. Second Holy War against the Phocians, who
 1 Curtius, Hist. of Greece, V. 60.

had been condemned by the Amphictyonic council to pay an enormous fine for having used the holy land of Cirrha (p. 52), which was consecrated to the Delphian Apollo. The Thebans managed to have the collection of the fine entrusted to themselves.

The Phocians plundered the temple of Delphi and were thereby enabled to maintain by means of mercenary troops a long and dubious war against Thebans, Locrians, and Thessalians. Leaders of the Phocians, Philomelus († 354), Onomarchus, his brother Phayllus, and son Phalæcus. After a long contest Onomarchus fell (352) in battle against Philip of Macedonia, whose entrance into central Greece was prevented by an Athenian army at Thermopylæ. At a later period Philip was called upon by the Thebans for assistance against the victorious Phalæcus. The Phocians forced by Philip, who had subdued the Thessalians and secured Thermopylæ, to lay down their arms; their cities were deprived of their walls by a decree of the Amphictyonic council; the inhabitants were separated into villages, and made tributary to the Delphian god. Philip was elected to the Amphictyonic council in place of the Phocians.

Philip, whose power had steadily increased, had been at war with Athens since his occupation of Amphipolis. In Athens Demosthenes (383–322), since 351, when he delivered his first Philippic, was the soul of an organization of a national opposition to the threat-

ening power of Macedonia.1

Olynthus, having revolted from Philip and made peace with Athens, was hard pressed by the king, and begged aid from Athens. The three Olynthiac orations of Demosthenes. Before the arrival of the Athenian assistance Philip captured Olynthus by treachery and destroyed the city (348), as well as a large number of smaller places in Chalcidice, and sold the inhabitants as slaves.

The opponents of Demosthenes, Eubulus and Æschines (Aloxiums). Formation of a Macedonian party in Athens. Negotiations with Philip, which, in spite of the opposition of Demosthenes, led to the shameful peace of Philocrates (346), which left all conquests in the hands of the king. A complaint being entered at Athens by Hyperides against Philocrates, he went into exile. Demosthenes lodged a complaint against Æschines, who was declared not guilty (343).

Philip endeavored to extend his power to the Propontis and the Pontus Euxinus, and founded numerous colonies in Thrace (Philippopolis). The national party at Athens succeeded in forming a league of Hellenic states (among others Megăra, Achaia, Corinth), under the lead of Athens against Philip. The king besieged Perinth and Byzantium in vain. The Athenians declared war against him, sent a fleet and an army to Byzantium, and forced him to raise the siege. Athens derived her supply of grain from the countries on the Black Sea; hence her sensitiveness in regard to Byzantium, which was the key to the Euxine.

339-338. Third Holy War (against Amphissa). At the instigation of Philip (Æschĭnes) the Amphictyonic council had decreed the punishment of the Locrians of Amphissa for hav-

¹ A. Schaefer, Demosthenes u. seine Zeit.

ing occupied some ground which was consecrated to Apollo. Philip, entrusted with the execution of the sentence by the Amphictyons, seized Elatēa, which commanded the entrance to Bœotia. Great dismay in Greece. The Athenians fitted out a fleet and an army at the instance of Demosthenes, who went in person to Thebes and induced the Thebans to form an alliance with Athens. The allied Thebans and Athenians were defeated in the

- 338. Battle of Chæronea (Χαιρώνεια) by Philip, whose son Aug.

 Alexander decided the battle by annihilating the Holy Band of the Thebans. Philip punished the Thebans severely and placed a garrison in the Cadmēa; to the Athenians he granted a favorable peace. Peace of Demades. He advanced into Peloponnesus, took a large part of her territory from Sparta, and divided it among the Messenians, Argives, and Arcadians.
- Macedonian Hegemony. At a national assembly at Corinth, where the Spartans only did not appear, Philip caused himself to be chosen leader (with dictatorial power) of the Grecian forces against the Persians (στρατηγός ἀυτοκράτωρ τῶν Ἐλλήνων). In other respects the Grecian cantons were to retain their autonomy; a congress (συνέδριον) at Corinth should adjust their differences.

FOURTH PERIOD.

Græco-Macedonian or Hellenistic Epoch down to the Subjugation of Greece by the Romans (338-146).

After the murder of Philip, who was on the point of beginning the war against Persia, by Pausanias (336), the Macedonian throne was occupied by his son, who had been educated by Aristotle ('Αριστοτέληs, 384–322), and was now 20 years old.

336-323. Alexander the Great (' $A\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \xi a \nu \delta \rho o \varsigma$).

He forced the Greeks to transfer to him the Hegemony and the command against the Persians, quickly reduced the revolted Thracians (Triballians), Getæ and Illyrians in the north, appeared on the news of a Grecian uprising (of the Athenians and Thebans) for the second time in Greece, defeated the Thebans, destroyed Thebes with the exception of the house of the poet Pindar (522-442?), and sold the inhabitants as slaves. The terrified Athenians submitted and were pardoned. Antipater left as vicegerent in Macedonia. In 330 revolt of the Spartans put down by Antipater in the bloody battle of Megalopölis, where 5000 Spartans, under their king Agis II., met a heroic death.

334. Expedition of Alexander against Persia,²
Spring. which was not merely a war of conquest, but also a scien-

¹ Droysen, Geschichte Alexanders des Grossen (Geschichte des Hellenismus,
2 Aufl., 1877, Th. I. with 5 maps by R. Kiepert). Hertzberg, Die Asiatischen Feldzüge Alexanders d. Gr., with a map by H. Kiepert.
2 For the route, see Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. II.

tific expedition, and a journey of discovery. Alexander crossed the Hellespont at Abydos with 30,000 infantry and 5000 cavalry (generals: Perdiccas, Clitus, Parmenio, Hephæstio, Craterus, Ptolemæus, Antigonus), defeated the Persian satraps and Memnon, leader of the Grecian mercenaries of Darius, completely in the

334. Battle of the Granicus (a rivulet in Troas).

Rescue of Alexander by Clitus. Advancing through Mysia and Lydia, Alexander proclaimed the freedom of the Grecian cities and islands from Persian rule, conquered Miletus and Halicarnassus, and traversed Caria and Lycia. Prevented from advancing further by the steep mountains, he went northward through the land of the Pisidians to Phrygia by way of Celænæ, Gordium (the Gordian knot), and through Cappadocia to Cilicia (bath in the Cydnus). At Tarsus he was taken ill, but speedily recovering (potion of the physician Philippus) he passed through the Syrian Gates to Myriandrus on the coast in Syria. Meantime the Persian king, Darius III. (p. 29) had approached from the Euphrates with a large army and got to the rear of the Macedonians. On hearing this, Alexander turned back from Syria and gained a brilliant victory over the Persians in the

333. Battle of Issus, in Cilicia.

Nov. An immense number of Persians fell; the rest were captured or scattered. Darius escaped, but his mother, his wives, and

daughters fell into the hands of the victor.

In order to completely destroy the Persian power at sea, Alexander conquered Syria, Phænicia, where he besieged Tyre for seven months, and Palestine, advanced into Egypt without opposition, and went from Pelusium to Memphis. Foundation of Alexandria on a well-chosen site. Expedition across the Libyan desert to the oracle of Zeus Ammon in the oasis of Sivah. Leaving Egypt, Alexander passed through Palestine and Syria by way of Damascus, crossed the Euphrates at Thapsacus, traversed Mesopotamia, crossed the Tigris, and defeated the Persian army, which outnumbered his own 20 times, in the

331. Battle of Gaugamela or Arbela $(\tau \dot{\alpha} \dot{A} \rho \beta \epsilon \lambda \alpha)$,

Oct. not far from the ruins of Nineveh. While Darius fled northward, Alexander crossed the Tigris a second time, entered Babylon without resistance, traversed Babylonia, crossed the Tigris a third time, captured the capital of Persia, Susa in Susiana, and traversed Persis. Capture of Pasargădæ and

Persepolis.

In the spring of 330 Alexander set out in pursuit of Darius. Crossing Media to Echatăna in the north, he hastened through the Caspian gates to Parthia. There, in the neighborhood of Hecatompylos, Darius Codomannus was murdered (330) by the satrap Bessus, who fled to Bactria and assumed the royal title. After an expedition northward to Hyrcania against the Grecian mercenaries, Alexander traversed Parthia toward the east, turned southward, for the purpose of punishing an insurrection of satraps, and crossed Aria and Drangiana. In Prophthasia discovery of the conspiracy of

Philotas, who was condemned by the army and executed; his father, Parmenio, was put to death in *Echatana* (330) at Alexander's command.

Alexander now crossed Arachosia in a northeasterly direction, crossed the Paropanisus (p. 24), or Indian Caucasus, in the spring of 329 (foundation of a new Alexandria), advanced into Bactria, pursued Bessus, who had retreated beyond the Oxus, but was delivered to Alexander, and ultimately crucified. Alexander went northward as far as the Jaxartes (the modern Sir Darja), where he founded Alexandria Eschăta; after some short expeditions against the nomades (Scythians) on the other side of the Jaxartes, he remained for some time in Sogdiana (murder of Clitus in 328 in Maracanda, now Samarcand), after which he went to Bactria. Marriage with Roxana, daughter of a Bactrian prince. Alexander began at this time to adopt oriental clothing and customs.

327. Expedition of Alexander to India.

Having once more crossed the *Paropanisus*, Alexander, after sharp fighting with the mountain tribes, reached the *Indus*, crossed it, and entered the *Punjab* (country of five rivers). In alliance with the Indian prince *Taxiles*, at the

326. Battle of the Hydaspes (Vitastă, now Djelam) he defeated Porus, and took him prisoner, treated him, how-

ever, with magnanimity, and replaced him on his throne as a dependent prince.

Foundation of Nicæa and Bucephăla. Alexander went eastward as far as the Hyphasis (Vipāçā, now Vjāsa, or Bejās), when the Macedonian soldiers refused to go farther, and compelled him to return to the Hydaspes. Construction of a fleet of some 2000 (?) ships, which conveyed a portion of the army down the Hydaspes to the Acesines (now Tshînâb), while the remaining part (with 200 elephants) marched along the shore. Contest with the Malli. Alexander's rash bravery and severe wound. After his recovery the fleet and army proceeded, and finally reached the junction of the united Punjab rivers with the Indus. In 325 army and fleet went down the Indus. Craterus returned to Persis with a part of the army by the short route to the west. Alexander continued with the fleet and land force to the delta of the Indus, where the fleet under Nearchus entered the Indian Ocean. Ebb and flow of the tide. Nearchus coasted to the west, and discovered the entrance to the Persian Gulf, while Alexander conducted the rest of the army through the desert of Gedrosia (Beluchistan). After terrible suffering and severe loss he arrived in Carmenia, met Craterus, and later Nearchus on the The latter was dispatched to discover the mouths of the Tigris and Euphrates.

324. Return of Alexander to Persis; arraignment and punishment Jan. of the avaricious and cruel governors who had given up the king and his army for lost. Arrival in Susa. Here Alexander disclosed his great plan of Hellenizing the East, uniting the victor and the vanquished into one great nation and founding a great Macedonian-Persian universal empire on a

basis of equality of the Græco-Macedonian and the Oriental population. Marriage of Alexander with the eldest daughter of Darius III. and the youngest sister of Artaxerxes III., while Hephæstion took to wife the youngest daughter of Darius III. Eighty Macedonian officers married Persian ladies of good family, and in consequence of rewards offered by the king, 10,000 Macedonians took Persian wives. Great plans for opening commercial relations with other nations and for the construction of roads on a large scale. Alexander, as successor of the Great King, required to be worshipped as a divinity.

324. A mutiny of the Macedonian army at Opis on the Tigris was July. quelled by Alexander's courage and wisdom. The veterans were disbanded after receiving great rewards and sent to Macedonia under Craterus, while Antipater was to bring new troops thence. Death of Hephæstion. Alexander undertook the exploration of the Euphrates.

323. Death of Alexander the Great,

June. at Babylon, which he had destined for the capital of the new empire.

323-276. Wars of the Diadochi (successors of Alexander.)¹

These long and complicated contests, which broke out immediately after the death of Alexander, destroyed the newly founded universal empire, but carried on successfully in another way the work which Alexander had begun of Hellenizing the east, and spreading Grecian language and culture. (Hellenistic language, ή κοινή διάλεκτος), so that the new Persian empire which afterwards grew up on this ground was very different from the old Persian monarchy, and a worthy

rival of its great opponent, the empire of Rome.

Perdiccas became regent in Asia for Alexander's half brother Philip Arrhideus and his posthumous son by Roxana, Alexander. Antipater and Craterus shared the regency of the west. The other generals received lieutenancies: Ptolemæus, Egypt; Antigonus, Pamphylia, Phrygia and Lycia; Eumenes, Alexander's secretary, Paphlygonia and Cappadocia, which however he had first to subdue; Cassander, Caria; Leonnatus, Phrygia on the Hellespont. The plan of Perdiccas, who married Alexander's sister, to make himself king, caused a league of the other generals against him. Perdiccas was murdered by his own troops while on an expedition against Ptolemæus (321). The new regent, Antipater, made a new assignment of the lieutenancies, wherein Seleucus obtained the satrapy of Babylon. After the death of Antipater (319) a war followed between his son Cassander, and the aged Polysperchon over the regency. Antigonus, in league with Cassander, was victorious in Asia over Eumenes, who was betrayed by his own soldiers and whom he executed, while Cassander was victorious in Europe (316). Lysimachus made himself master of the lieutenancy of Thrace.

Antigonus wishing to bring the whole empire under his sceptre, a

¹ Droysen, Geschichte des Hellenismus, 2 Ed. Pt. 2 u. 3, 1877, 78.

315-301. war broke out between Antigonus and the other generals,

in the course of which Antigonus and his son Demetrius Poliorcetes (Πολιορκητήs) assumed the royal title (306). Their example was followed by Seleucus, Lysimachus, Cassander. During this period, a time abounding in horrors, every member of the royal family of Alexander perished, mostly by murder. His ambitious and cruel mother Olympias was condemned to death at the instance of Cassander, and stoned by the relatives of her own victims.

After a long contest attended with varying success, the war against Antigonus was ended by the

301. Battle of Ipsus ('I\psi in Phrygia).

Antigonus fell, his son Demetrius fled and led for many years

an adventurous life as a pirate.

In Europe the war still lasted. After the death of Cassander (296), his two sons quarreled about the succession. Demetrius took the opportunity to seize the supreme power in Macedonia and Greece. He lost his power indeed through arrogance and desire for conquest after a reign of seven years, but his son Antigonus Gonatas after a changeful career gained permanent possession of Macedonia (278).

Thus after many divisions and the formation of many sovereignties of but short duration, there grew up out of the Macedonian-Persian universal empire, five monarchies, of decidedly Hellenistic character, in which Greek was the language of the court and the government, of inscriptions and coinage, and of the educated classes, and in some of which Grecian art, literature and learning reached a high development. Nevertheless, these five monarchies, from their formation to their fall, bore the imprint of the deepest moral decay. These five states, to which we must add the republic of Rhodes and the Grecian Cantons, were:

1. Egypt under the Ptolemies or Lagidæ with its capital at Alexandria.

Ptolemæus I. (323–285), called Sotēr, i. e. saviour, because he sent aid to the Rhodians, or Lagi, i. e. son of Lagus, founder of the kingdom. Ptolemæus II. (285–247) called Philadelphus from being the husband of his sister Arsinŏe; foundation of the museum with the Alexandrine library. Ptolemæus III. (247–221), called Euergĕtēs, i. e. benefactor, by the priests, temporary conquest of Caria, Lycia, Cilicia, Cyprus. Ptolemæus IV., Philopater (221–205), decline of the power of the monarchy. Ptolemæus V., Epiphänes (205–181); Egypt becomes dependent on the Romans.

2. Syria, under the Seleucidæ. Capital at first Seleucia, on the Tigris, afterwards Antiochia on the Orontes.

Seleucus I. Nicator (312-280), founder of the kingdom. Antiochus I. Sotēr (280-262). Antiochus II. Theos (262-247). Seleucus II. (247-227). Seleucus III. (227-224). Antiochus III. the Great (224-187). Defeated at Magnesia (190) by the Romans, Antiochus was

compelled to accept a peace, which struck the kingdom of the Seleucidæ from the roll of the great powers.

The following states separated themselves from the Syrian realm of the Seleucidæ, and did not belong to the Hellenistic system of states.

- 278. a. The confederacy of the Galatians (p. 35) in Asia Minor, between Bithynia, Phrygia, Lycaonia and Cappadocia, founded by Gallic tribes, who, during the wars of the Diodochi, had ravaged Macedonia and Greece, crossed the Hellespont and in 278 settled in Asia Minor. They consisted of the three tribes of Trocmi, Tectăsages and Tolistoboii (each under four Tetrarchs) with the three capitals Tavia, Ancyra and Pessinūs. In the first century before Christ, Deiotărus became king of all Galatia, which Augustus made a Roman province.
- 250. b. The Parthians (p. 29) who under the Arsacidæ (250 B. C. to 226 A. D.) conquered all lands between the Euphrates and the Indus, and formed a dam, in the east, first against the Hellenistic and afterwards against the Roman power.

167. c. The Jews under the Maccabees (p. 11).

The two following countries were never dependent on the empire of the Seleucidæ.

- a. Pontus, which had, it is true, submitted to Alexander the Great, but was recognized as independent under its own kings of Persian descent (of the Achæmenidæ it was claimed, p. 25), by the victors at Ipsus (p. 77). The last kings were *Mithridates VI*. the Great, and his son *Pharnaces* (see Roman History, Fourth Period, p. 129).
- b. Armenia, although kings of Armenia first appear after the battle of Magnesia, (190).
- 3. The kingdom of Pergamon under the Attalidæ, Capital, Pergamus in Mysia.

Founded by *Philetærus* (283–263) who had been appointed governor by *Lysimachus*. Eumĕnes I. (263–241). Attălus I. (241–197). Eumĕnes II. (197–159), founder of the library of Pergamus. Attalus II. (159–138). Attălus III. (138–133), who bequeathed the kingdom to the Romans.

4. Bithynia. Capital, Nicomedia.

Founded by Nicomēdes I. (277-250?). Zeilas (250-228?). Prusias I. (228-183), with whom Hannibal took refuge. Prusias II. (183-149). Nicomēdes II. (149-91). Nicomēdes III. (91-75), who bequeathed the kingdom to the Romans.

5. Macedonia under the descendants of Demetrius Poliorcetes. Capital, Pella.

Antigonus Gonatas (278–239). Demetrius II. (239–229). Antigonus Doson (229–221). Philip V. (III), (221–179) defeated by the Romans at Cynoscephălæ (197). Perseus (179–168). After the battle of Pydna (168) Macedonia became a dependency of Rome, in 146 it was made a Roman province (p. 122).

6. The island of Rhodes ('Pó δo_5), since the battle of *Ipsus* (301) an independent state; since the sec-

ond century (B. C.,) dependent ally of the Romans; made a province by the Emperor Vespasian, 71 A. D.

7. The Greek cantons,

under the lead of Athens, made a futile attempt, immediately after the death of Alexander the Great, to throw off the Macedonian yoke. From the city of *Lamia* in Thessaly, in the neighborhood of which the war was principally waged, it was known as the

323-322. Lamian War.

The Greeks were at first successful under Leosthenes, and defeated Leonnātus, but were defeated by Antipăter and Craterus at Crannon, south of the Penëus. The cantons submitted one after another. The Athenians were compelled to receive a Macedonian garrison in Munychia and to give up their democratic constitution. (Phocton and Demades, the political leaders). Citizenship was regulated by a property census. Demosthenes fled and took poison on the island of Calauria (Argŏlis). During the war between Cassander and Polysperchon (p. 76) the democratic party regained its supremacy in Athens, and Phocion was executed; later, however, Demetrius of Phaleron, the political companion of Phocion, became under Macedonian supremacy, the ruler of the Athenian commonwealth (317-307). In the course of the wars of the Diadochi Demetrius Poliorcetes gained possession of Athens several times and made the Acropolis the scene of the greatest debauchery (307-295). The last attempt to throw off the Macedonian yoke and regain its old importance in Greece was made by Athens under Glaucon and Chremonides in 263 B. C. but it was defeated after a three years' war and continued to be tributary to the Macedonians. Thenceforward Athens had no political influence in Greece; it retained, however, its autonomy as regarded its municipal administration, and continued to be the seat of culture and learning.

Thessaly, during this period, was a Macedonian province; Epirus was for a time a separate state, afterwards it was allied with Macedonia. Most of the cantons of central Greece and Peloponnesus became allies, more or less dependent, of the Macedonian sovereigns. The complete subjugation of Greece by Macedonia was prevented by the

280. Ætolian League founded about 280, and the Achæan League which was renewed at the same time.

The latter grew to considerable power and acquired the hegemony in Peloponnesus after it was joined by Sicyon (251) which was freed from its tyrants by $Ar\bar{a}tus$, and by Corinth (243), which $Ar\bar{a}tus$ had freed from the Macedonian garrison.

Jealous of this hegemony the Ætolian League and Sparta, which had completely lost her ancient simplicity of life, and was in the hands of a wealthy oligarchy, joined forces against the Achæan League. The young king Agis IV. paid with his life for his attempt to induce a reform of the Spartan state (241?). A similar attempt made by King Cleomenes III. had better success, though for a time only: he caused the ephors to be surprised and put to death,

banished eighty oligarchs, and established a reformed constitution. Cleomenes conquered Argos and Mantinea, and waged successful war against the Achæan League. Arātus sought aid against Sparta from the Macedonian king Antigonus Doson, and delivered the Acropolis of Corinth into his hands.

The Spartans were defeated in the

221. Battle of Sellasia (in Laconia).

Cleomenes escaped by flight and died in Egypt (220). The Macedonians entered Sparta, restored the oligarchy and forced upon the Spartans an alliance with the Achæan League, now under Macedonian Supremacy. The latter was immediately afterwards involved in a war with the Ætolian League, during which the Spartans took sides against the Achæans, and Peloponnesus was horribly ravaged (220–217).

About this time the Ætolian League formed an alliance with the Romans against Philip V. (III.), of Macedonia, who was allied with Hannibal. (First Macedonian war, see Roman history, third Period,

p. 116).

Philopæmen, who has been called "the last of the Greeks," became Strategus of the Achæan League in 207, and defeated the Spartans under their tyrant, *Machanidas*, in the

Macedonian war (see Roman history, p. 118). the Achæan League likewise joined the Romans against Philip V. (III.), who, after the battle of Cynoscephalæ (197), was forced to abandon the hegemony of Greece. The Romans proclaimed the freedom of all the Grecian cantons, but they gave support everywhere to that party which devoted itself to the advancement of Roman interests, and caused themselves to be frequently appealed to as arbitrators.

After the death of a second Tyrant of Sparta, the cruel Nabis, Philopæmen humbled the Spartans again, and forced them to reënter the Achæan League, but was soon after taken prisoner and put to death in a war against the Messinians, who had revolted at the instance of Deinocrätes (183). After the death of Philopæmen, decline of the power of the Achæan League, which made a final exertion in the so-called Achæan war against the Romans, which ended with

the

Defeat of the Greeks at Leucopetra, on the isthmus, and the

146. Capture and destruction of Corinth.

The Corinthians were sold as slaves; a part of their land was given to Sicyon; the rest became the property of the Roman state. The remaining Greek cantons were treated with kindness, and for the most part retained their own administration and jurisdiction, but were subject to the Roman governor of Macedonia. It was not until later (27) that Peloponnesus and Central Greece seem to have become a Roman province under the name of Achaia.

§ 3. ROMAN HISTORY.

GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF ANCIENT ITALY.

(See Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. VII., VIII., and IX.)

Italia was first used as the general name of the larger part of the peninsula, which is traversed by the Apennines and extended to the Macra and Rubĭcon, since the middle of the third century before Christ; as applied to the whole peninsula, as far as the Alps, Italia was first employed in scientific usage by Polybius (about 150); it was not used officially and in a political sense, until after the time of Augustus. It was divided into Upper Italy, Central Italy, and Lower Italy.

- I. Upper Italy, traversed by the Padus (Po), and the Athësis or Atagis (Adige, Etsch), and containing the lakes, Lacus Verbānus (Lago Maggiore), Lacus Larius (L. di Como), and Lacus Benācus (L. di Garda), comprised the following three districts which, before Augustus, were not reckoned a part of political Italy: 1. Liguria, Vercellæ (Vercelli), Taurasia, later Augusta Taurinorum (Torino, Turin), Genoa (Genova); 2. Gallia Cisalpina, also called togata, in distinction from transalpine Gaul, which was known as Gallia bracata, divided by the Padus (Po) into: a. Gallia transpadana, Comum (Como); Mediolānum (Milano, Milan); Ticīnum (Pavīa), on the Ticinus, a branch of the Po; Cremona, on the Po; Mantua, on the Mincius, a branch of the Po, near which was the village of Andes, the birthplace of Virgil; Verona, on the Athesis. b. Gallia cispadana: Placentia (Piacenza), at the junction of the Trebia and the Padus, Mutina, (Moděna), Parma, Bononia (Bologna), Ravenna, in ancient times a seaport. 3. Venetia: Patavium (Padua), birthplace of Livius, Aquilēia.
- II. Central Italy, lying between the little rivers Macra and Rubicon in the N., Silārus and Frento in the S., was usually divided into six districts: Etruria, Latium, Campania, on the Mare Tyrrhēnum, or Infērum; Umbria, Picenum, Samnium, on the Mare Adriaticum or Supērum. The Tiber, running from N. to S., divided Etruria on the right, from Umbria and Latium on the left bank. The name of Samnium is, however, more correctly applied to the southern inland district of Central Italy, so that the Sabellic tribes, who were related to the Samnites and Picentes, formed geographically a separate seventh group, under which were included the Vestini, Marrucīni and Frentani, extending to the Adriatic coast, and the inland districts of the Sabines, Pæligni, and Marsi.
- 1. Etruria, inhabited by the Etruscans (Rasenna), or Tuscans, in twelve communities under kings or Lucumos. These formed a confederacy, whose federal constitution seems to have been exceedingly loose. The most important places in Etruria were, from N. to S.: Pisæ, Volateræ, Arretium (Arezzo), Cortōna, Perusia (Perugia, west of which Lake Trasimenus), Populonia, on the coast, Clusium (Chiusi), Volsinii, Tarquinii, Falerii, Cære, Veii.

2. Latium. In the smaller district of the Latini: Roma, on the left bank of the Tiber (a part of the modern city, Trastevere and Borgo, is on the right bank, but the principal part of the city is still on the left bank), traditionally said to be built on seven hills (montes: Capitolinus, Palatinus, Aventinus, Cælius, Esquilinus; colles: Viminalis, Quirinalis). 1 On the southern summit of the Mons Capitolinus the Capitolium with the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, and the Tarpeian Rock; on the northern summit, separated from the southern by the Intermontium, the Arx with the temple of Juno Monēta. At the foot of the Capitol, the Forum Romānum (the market-place), consisting of the Forum proper, and the Comitium, with the speakers' platform (Rostra, named from the prows of the ships from Antium) between the two. In the last century of the republic the forum was surrounded by temples and basilicas (e.g. Basilica Julia). The imperial forums were not open places, but masses of buildings and columned porticos. The Palatinus with the palaces of the emperors; E. of this, the Amphitheatrum Flavium (Colosseum, for 80,000 spectators). N. from the Capitolinus to the Tiber lay the field of Mars, Campus Martius, during the republic an open field used for military practice, athletic sports, and political gatherings, after Cæsar and during the imperial period covered with splendid buildings, now the centre of the modern city. The buildings on the right bank of the Tiber did not belong to the Urbs proper. They were situated partially on the Mons Janiculus, partially on the Mons Vaticanus, where the Vatican and the church of St. Peter now stand; eastward stood, by the Tiber, the Mausoleum Hadriani, where the Castle of St. Angelo now stands. Finally must be mentioned the island of the Tiber. Sixteen great artificial roads ran from Rome in various directions: Via Appia and Via Latina to the S., Via Valeria to the E., Via Flaminia to the N., Via Aurelia to the W., etc.

Ostia, the harbor of Rome, on the left bank of the Tiber, existed at the time of the kings; under the emperors a second harbor, Portus, on the right bank of the Tiber. Laurentum, Lavinium, Ardea, Suessa Pometia, Aricia (on the Via Appia), Velitræ not far distant, Alba Longa on the slope of Mt. Albanus, near the lake of Albania, Tusculum (near the present Frascati), Gabii, Tibur (Tivoli) on the Anio, a branch of the Tiber; Fidenæ, north of Rome, south of the brook Allia.

In the land of the Æqui, Præneste (afterwards a Latin city again. In the land of the Hernicæ, Anagnia. In the land of the Volscii, Fregellæ, Arpinum, the birthplace of Marius and Cicero; on the coast, Antium and Tarracina (Anxur), south of the Pomptine marshes. In the land of the Aruncii: Formiæ, Minturnæ, on the Liris (Garigliano); Suessa (Aurunca), near the Mons Massicus and the Ager Falernus (famous wines).

¹ The expression "seven-hilled city" applies properly to old Rome, the palatine city. Its transfer to the Servian and republican Rome is the result of a later misunderstanding. The description of the city of the time of Constantine, leaves out the two colles, Quirinalis and Viminalis, and increases the number of montes to 7 by adding the Vaticanus and the Janiculus, which lay outside of the city proper. See Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, I. 116, note.

- 3. Campania, traversed by the Volturnus (Volturno), with the mountains Gaurus and Vesuvius near Naples. Two bays separated from one another by a rocky isthmus: Sinus Cumanus (Bay of Naples), and Sinus Pæstanus (Bay of Salerno). Along the coast: Liternum; Cumæ (Κόμη, founded by a colony from Chalcis in Eubœa in 1050?); Misēnum near the promontory of similar name; Puteŏli (Puzzuoli); Baiæ near lake Lucrinus, famous as a watering place; Parthenope or Palæopolis, the oldest part of Neapolis (Νεάπολις, Napŏli, Naples); Herculanēum and Pompeii, buried in 79 A. D. by lava and ashes from Vesuvius; Salernum on the Sinus Pæstanus, the chief city of the Picentes who had been transferred thither. Inland: Capŭa (not the modern Capua, but Santa Maria Maggiore), with an immense amphitheatre; Nola.
 - 4. Umbria. On the coast: Ariminum (Rimini), Pisaurum, Sena

Gallica (Sinagaglia). Inland: Sentīnum, Iguvium, Spoletium.

- 5. Picenum. Ancona on the coast; Asculum Picenum.
- 6. Samnium (in the wider sense, see p. 81). In the land of the Sabini: Amiternum, birthplace of Sallust; Cures Reate. In the land of the Pæligni: Corfinium; Sulmo, birthplace of Ovid. In Samnium proper: Bovianum; Æsernia; Beneventum (Benevento), former Malventum; Caudium, in the neighborhood of the Caudine Pass (Furculæ Caudinæ).
- III. Lower Italy, also called Greater Greece, Magna Græca (Ἑλλὰς ἡ μεγάλη), was divided into four districts: Apulia, Calabria in the east, Lucania and Bruttium in the west.
- 1. Apulia: Luceria, A(u)sculum Apulum, Cannæ, Venusia, birthplace of Horace, near Mt. Vultur. 2. Calabria: Brundisium (Brindisi), the port of departure for Greece; Tarentum (Tápas see p. 51). 3. Lucania: Pæstum (Posidonia, Ποσειδωνία), with notable ruins of temples; Metapontum; Heraclēa (Ἡράκλεια). 4. Bruttium: Sybăris (Σίβαρις), destroyed in 510, by the Crotonians; Thurii afterwards built in its neighborhood (see p. 64); Croton (Κρότων), not far from the promontory of Lacinium; Locri Epizephyrii (Λοκροί Ἐπιζεφύριοι); Rhegium (Ὑρηγιον, i. e. rent, from ῥηγνυμι, the present Reggio). Consentia (Cosenza on the river Busento).

Italian Islands.

Bicilia (Σικελία), separated from Italy by the Fretum Sicülum (Strait of Messina), formerly called Sicania, also Trinacria, with its three capes, or promontories: Pelōrum in the north, Pachynum in the south, and Lilybæum in the west. On the eastern coast from north to south: Messāna (formerly Zancle, p. 51), Tauromenium (Taormina), Catăna (Catania) at the base of Ætna, Syracusæ (Συράκουσαι, Siragossa, see p. 51), at the time of its greatest extent comprising five cities: Ortygia, situated on an island, and hence also called Nasos, which now forms the whole city, with the spring of Arethusa, Achradina, Tycha, Neapolis, and Epipolæ, at first a suburb.

This form (instead of Bruttii, Bruttius Ager) has, however, no ancient authority. The Byzantines after the tenth century, A. D., gave Bruttium the name Calabria, after the Normans had dispossessed them of Calabria proper, and the eastern peninsula was known after that time as Apulia.

On the south coast: Camarina, Gela, Agrigentum ('Ακράγας, now Girgenti), between Gela and Agrigentum the promontory of Ecnomos, not far from the mouth of the (southern) river Himera; Selinus (Σελινοῦs). On the west coast: Libybæum, Drepănum, Eryx. On the north coast: Panormus (Πάνορμος, now Palermo, see p. 17), Himera, Mylæ. In the interior of the island: Henna.

Sardinia (Σαρδώ): Carălis (Cagliari).

Corsica (Κύρνος): Alalia, later the Roman colony of Aleria. Of the smaller islands the following are noteworthy: 1. Melita, now Malta, and Gaudos, now Gozzo, south of Sicily. 2. The Insulæ Ægates, on the west of Sicily, not far from the promontory Lilybæum. 3. The Insulæ Æoliæ (now the Liparian islands) the largest, Lipăra, north of Sicily. 4. Capreæ, now Capri, and Ænaria, now Ischia, at the entrance to the Bay of Naples. 5. The Pontian islands, Pontia, Pandataria. 6. Ilva, now Elba.

RELIGION OF THE ANCIENT ROMANS.1

The Romans possessed an ancient religion entirely distinct from that of Greece. It was a common inheritance of the Italians, though probably early receiving Etruscan and Grecian elements. In the last centuries of the republic the theogony of Greece was imported into Roman literature, and to some extent into the state religion. At a still later time, under a policy of tolerance, all forms of faith and superstition were represented in the great capital.

The religion of the Romans was a polytheism, but their deification of nature was not so detailed, nor were their deities so human as was the case among the Greeks. Their faith had a sterner aspect, the practical side of religion was more natural to them than the poetic side. They honored and utilized their gods, but they wove

few fancies about them.

The great gods were: Jupiter, god of the sky, "father of gods and men;" Juno, his wife, goddess of maternity; Minerva, goddess of intellect, presiding over the arts; Mars, god of war, the most representative of the Italian divinities; Bellona, goddess of war; Vesta, patron of the Roman state, goddess of the national hearth, where burned the sacred fire; Ceres, Saturnus, goddess and god of agriculture; Ops, goddess of the harvest and of wealth; Hercules, god of gain, presiding over the sanctity of contracts; Mercurius, god of traffic; Neptunus, god of the sea.

Venus seems not to have been one of the original Italian divinities. She first appears as a goddess of agriculture, but was soon identified with Aphrodite, the Grecian goddess of love. Of the lesser gods there were many, watching over every act of individuals and of the state, and over every stage of growth and development. Such were Tellus, Silvanus, Terminus, Querinus, Janus, the god of the beginning and end, represented with a double face. (Gate of Janus in the comiturm, open in time of war, closed in time of peace). Lares and Penates,

presiding over the family and the home, Sol, Luna, etc.

1 Rawlinson, Religions of the Ancient World, chap. VIII. Mommson, Hist. of Rome, Book I. chap. XII. Leighton, Hist. of Rome, chap. IV.

Worship. The worship of the Romans consisted of a round of ceremonies, — prayers, sacrifices, games, — of strictly prescribed form, with the object of securing the good-will, averting the anger or ascertaining the intentions of the gods. In private life these ceremonies were performed in the family and were conducted by its head, the pater familias; in matters affecting the whole people, the state, which was a larger family, conducted the worship. In early times the king presided at the ceremonies. Under the republic a rex sacrificulus was appointed to perform those religious acts which were formerly the

exclusive right and duty of the king.

The state maintained at public cost: 1. "Colleges of sacred lore" having general supervision over religion and all matters connected therewith. The most important were: The college of Pontifices, four in number (afterwards nine and sixteen), the highest religious power in the state. With them rested the decision as to which days were suitable for the transaction of business, public or private, and which not (dies fasti et nefasti). Hence they controlled the calendar, whereby they, with the augures, became important instruments in the hands of the government. The pontifices also decided upon the action made necessary by the auguries. At their head stood the pontifex maximus, who appointed the rex sacrificulus, the flamines and vestales. College of Augures, originally four, then nine and sixteen, who consulted the will of the gods, as revealed in omens, by the observation of the flight, cries, and manner of feeding of certain birds. College of Fetiales, twenty (?) in number, presiding over the relations between the Romans and other peoples. They conducted the conclusion of treaties, acted as heralds, and performed the ceremony of declaration of war, by throwing a blood-tipped spear into the hostile territory. Duumviri Sacrorum, having the charge of the Sibylline books. The haruspices exercised the art of interpreting the will of the gods from the examination of the entrails of slaughtered victims. They were an Etruscan institution.

2. Colleges of officiating priests: Flamines, who presided in various temples with chapters of assisting priests. Salii, or dancing priests, of Quirinus and Mars, the latter having charge of the sacred shields of Mars (ancillæ). Vestal Virgins, guardians of the sacred fire of Vesta, six maidens who had taken the vow of virginity. Lu-

perci, Fratres Arvales, etc.

Besides the observance of sacrifices and the offering of prayers, the priests had charge of conducting various public games: Lupercalia, (Feb. 15th), Feriæ Latinæ, Saturnalia (Dec.) and others.

ETHNOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF ITALY.2

At the extreme south the Iapygians. Their descent is not certainly established, though they undoubtedly belong to the Indo-European family and probably to the *Illyrian* race. In historic times the remnants of the tribe appear, in striking contradistinction to the true Italici, in process of rapid Hellenization.

¹ When the growth of the Roman dominion had made this a matter of difficulty, a plot of ground in Rome was set apart to represent hostile territory, and into this the spear was hurled.

2 Mommson, Hist. of Rome, I. chap. 2.

To the Indo-European family belonged likewise the inhabitants of central Italy, the Italici proper, who were divided into the Latin and the Umbro-Sabellian (Oskan), tribes. They were the next of kin of the Hellenes. The Italici entered Italy by land. The Latini occupied the western lowlands (Latium, connected with latus),1 the Umbro-Sabellian tribes spread themselves over the eastern part of Central Italy (Umbrians, Picentes, Sabines, Marsi, Hernici, Volscii). A main division of this group, the Samnites, occupied the mountain region which was named after them, and drove back the *Iapygians*. From the Samnites several tribes branched off; so the Campanians, called after the plain (Campus) which they settled along the Tyr-

Peculiarly distinct from the Latin and Sabellian Italici, in language, religion and customs were the Etruscans (in their own language, Rasenna). Up to the present time all attempts to establish their ethnographical position, have failed to reach settled conclusions. The attempt recently made, to prove them members of the Indo-European family and the Etruscan language closely related to the Latin, must, it would seem, be regarded as a failure.2

Perhaps the Etruscan people were formed by the union of two different tribes, one of which came to Italy over the Rætian Alps, while

the other came by sea.

Before the invasion of the Celts, Etruscans dwelt north of the Apennines, on both sides of the Po, between the territory of the Veneti (as far as the Adige), and the Ligurians.

The whole of Upper Italy was occupied by Celtic tribes (about 500 B. C.?), which gradually forced the Etruscans and Umbrians south-

 $\mathbf{ward}.$

Besides all these migrations into Italy from the north by land, colonization of no mean extent began very early on the part of the Hellenes, in Sicily and Lower Italy, by sea. (The Dorians, Chalcidians (i. e. Ionians), and Æolians were principally engaged therein).

Roman History can be divided into five periods.

753(?)-**510**(?) I. Mythical time of the kings.

510-264. II. Development of the constitution by struggles between Patricians and Plebeians. Subjugation of Italy proper (Central and Lower Italy), down to the beginning of the Punic wars.

264–146. III. Epoch of the *Punic wars*, and *beginning* of the universal rule of Rome, down to the destruction of Carthage and Corinth.

IV. Firm establishment of the universal supremacy of **146–31**. Rome, by the conquest of the East, Spain, and Gaul. Epoch of the Civil wars, down to the beginning of the absolute rule of Octavian, in consequence of the battle of Actium.

¹ The Ausonii (Aurunci, in Campania) probably belonged to the Latin race, as well; also, perhaps the Italici in the narrower sense, who dwelt originally in the western part of lower Italy, and the Siculi.

2 W. Corssen, Ueber die Sprache der Etrusker, 1874. W. Deecke,

Etruskische Forschungen, is of the contrary opinion, as is K. O. Müller, Die

Etrusker, ed. by W. Deecke, 2 vols., 1877.

31 B. C.-476 A. D. V. Sway of the Roman Casars, down to the fall of the Roman Empire of the west.

The last period extends into Mediæval History.

FIRST PERIOD.

Mythical Epoch of the Kings (753 1-510).

Foundation of Rome according to the Roman legends. King Numitor of Alba Longa, the descendant of Æneas, who had settled in Latium with some Trojan refugees, was deprived of his throne by his brother Amulius, who put his son to death, and caused his daughter Rea Silvia to become a vestal virgin, in order that the line of Numitor should perish. The twins, Romulus and Remus, the sons of Rea Silvia and Mars, the god of war, were, by command of the king, thrown into the Tiber, then overflowing its banks. Their cradle being caught by the roots of a fig-tree, the children were rescued from drowning, were suckled by a she-wolf, and brought up by the royal shepherd Faustulus. As they grew up, Romulus and Remus led other shepherds on the hunt and in forays for booty. At the festival of the *Lupercalia*, they were surprised by robbers; Romulus was taken prisoner, brought before Numitor, and accused of having plundered his fields. Numitor recognized his grandsons. The latter thereupon attacked the usurper Amulius at the head of their band, slew him, and placed the rightful king, their grandfather Numitor, again on the throne of Alba Longa. With the king's permission, the twins founded a city on that place on the bank of the Tiber where they had been exposed. (Festival of Palilia or Parilia, April 21, celebrated as the anniversary of the foundation.) a quarrel as to who should give his name to the city, Remus was killed. Romulus, being now the only king, called the city after himself, Roma.2

Surmises about the real origin of Rome. The results of modern scientific investigations leave not the least doubt that the Roman story of the foundation of the city is not historical, but an invention, having not the slightest basis of fact. It is perfectly clear that in reality Rome and the Romans did not derive their name from the founder of the city, but that, on the contrary, the name Romulus was formed by the inventors of the legend from the name of the city and the people. All tribal heroes are of divine origin; that those of the Romans should be sons of Mars, the god of agriculture and of war, needs no explanation. The legend of the exposure of the twins and of their miraculous preservation and recognition bears a striking resemblance to the story of the youth of Cyrus (p. 26). The fabulous descent from the Trojan Æneas ascribed to the family of the founder of Rome was an invention of

¹ According to Varro's era 753, according to Cato's 751; but to change years of the city into years before Christ, 754 or 752 must be used as the minuend. Both dates belong to the conventional chronology. See pp. 88 and 89.

^{8 (&#}x27;ompare besides Mommsen, Schwegler, Röm. Gesch., and Peter, Röm. Gesch., 1. 56.

Grecian writers (Stesichörus in the sixth century, Timœus in the third century, B. C.). The tale of the building of Rome by emigrants from Alba, under guidance of two princes of divine birth, was a naïve attempt to explain the growth of a city in the barren and unhealthy Roman Campagna by connecting it with the common metropolis of Latium.

Nothing can be considered historical except that Rome was, as regards the greater part of its population, a Latin settlement. The city was founded, or rather gradually arose, at a wholly unknown time and under wholly unknown circumstances. The settlement was formed very near the border of Latium, and just at the head of navigation (for small vessels) of the Tiber, the natural highway of commerce for Latium, without regard to the sterile character of the immediate neighborhood. This gives probability to the supposition that Rome in its earliest days "was a border trading-post of the Latius." Not that Rome was ever a mercantile city, after the manner of Corinth and Carthage; it was merely a trading village, where the imports and exports of Latium, which was essentially an agricultural district, were exchanged.

The opinion that the Roman people was a mixed race cannot be maintained, when it is considered that the development of the Roman language, political institutions, and religion, was free and individual to a degree seldom equalled. Of the three tribes or townships (Gauen) which seem to have united to form Rome (the Ramnes (identical with Romani), the Titi(ens)es, and the Lucĕres), the first was certainly, the third in all probability, Latin; the second was, it is true, Sabine, but it was soon completely blended with the Latin ele-

ments, as the Roman language shows.

The Royal Epoch, according to the Roman Legend.²

753-716. Romulus,

warrior king. Establishment of a retreat on the Capitolinus. Appointment of 100 Senatores or Patres (fathers), whose descendants are called Patricians. The three centuries of knights: Ramnès, Titi(ens)es, and Lucĕres. Rape of the Sabine women; war with the Sabines following, their king, Titus Tatius, seized the fortress on the Capitol through the treachery of Tarpeia. Battle between the Romans and Sabines interrupted by the Sabine women, who had been carried off. Union of the Romans and Sabines in one double state under the common rule of Romulus and Tatius, until the latter's death. War of Romulus with Fidēnæ and Veii. Romulus is translated during a thunder-storm, and henceforward worshipped as the god Quirinus. 715-673. Numa Pompilius

of Cures, elected, after a year's interregnum, by the Romans from among the Sabines. Peaceful king; arranges the religious services of the Romans according to the advice of the Camænas (prophetess) Egeria, his consort. Temple of Janus. Appointment of the five Pontifices, the first of whom is the Pontifex Maximus, the Flamenes,

¹ Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book I. Chaps. 2 and 4. ² Livius, I. 8 foll.

Fetiales, the four Augures, the four vestal virgins, afterwards increased to six.

673-641. Tullus Hostilius,

warlike king. War with Alba Longa; contest of the Horatii and Curatii decides in favor of Rome, to which Alba is obliged to submit. War with Veii and Fidenæ; treachery of the dictator of Alba, Mettius Fuffetius, who is torn in pieces. Destruction of Alba Longa; the inhabitants are transferred to Rome.

641-616. Ancus Marcius,

grandson of Numa, at the same time peaceful and warlike ("et Numæ et Romuli memor"). Development of the institution of the Fetiales. Successful war with four Latin towns, the inhabitants of which are settled on the Aventine. For this reason Ancus Marcius is represented in the traditional story of the kings of Rome, as the founder of the class of the plebeians. Fortification of Janiculum, construction of a bridge of piles (pons sublicius) over the Tiber.

Foundation of the harbor of Ostia.

616-578. Tarquinius Priscus,

who with his wife Tanaquil emigrated from the Etruscan city of Tarquinii, and for whom Grecian descent from the Bacchiadæ of Corinth was afterwards invented. He became guardian of Ancus' son, and was elected to the throne. Commencement of the construction of the temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline hill. Construction of the cloacæ. The Senate increased to 300 members; the number of equites doubled. Circus Maximus. Successful wars with the Sabines, Latins, and Etruscans. After the murder of Tarquinius by the sons of Ancus,

578-534. Servius Tullius

becomes king through the cunning of *Tanaquil*. He was the son of the slave woman *Ocrisia* and a god, was educated like a prince by Tanaquil in consequence of the utterance of an oracle, and became the son-in-law of Tarquinius. Wars with *Veii*. Rome joins the *Latin league*. Construction of the wall of Rome. Establishment of the census and the division of the centuries (p 92). Servius Tullius murdered by his son-in-law,

534-510. Tarquinius Superbus,

represented by tradition as a cruel despot. Tarquinius Superbus (i. e. the haughty) subjugates the Latin league, conquers Suessa Pometia, completes the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, and gains possession of the city of Gabii by the deceit and treachery of his son Sextus. Tradition ascribes to him the acquisition of the Sibylline books. Embassy of Titus and Aruns Tarquinius, the king's sons, to the oracle at Delphi. They are accompanied by their cousin, L. Junius Brutus, who represents himself as feeble-minded, in order to protect his life against the cruelty of the king; a story which was invented to explain the name of Brutus. Siege of Ardea. The rape of Lucretia, wife of L. Tarquinius Collatinus (i. e. from Collatia), by the king's son, Sextus, leads to the expulsion of the Tarquins and the abolition of monarchy. The insurrection is headed by L. Junius Brutus, whom the legend makes Tribunus Celerum, although he was commonly considered an imbecile. Over the body of Lucretia, who died by her own hand, he

¹ Peter, Röm. Gesch., I.8 33. Compare, on the other hand, p. 90.

called the people to arms, and incited the army against the king, who found the city gates closed upon him, and went into exile (Livius, I., 57-60).

Historical Facts of the Epoch of the Kings.¹

There is no doubt that the constitution of the oldest Roman state was a patriarchal monarchy; and that, after the new settlement had become an independent community, the highest power in Rome was exercised by a line of sovereigns elected for life (rex, from the

same stem as regere, to govern).

But neither the number nor all the names of the traditional kings, nor yet the deeds ascribed to the reign of each, still less the chronology of their reigns, can be considered historically authentic. The artificiality of the first four reigns, which are alternately warlike and peaceable, is self-evident. Doubtless the extension of the Roman territory and Rome's hegemony over the Latin league was not acquired without severe contests and brilliant deeds of arms; but the story has come down to us in a fabulous form and has been arbitrarily revised. The destruction of Alba, the ancient metropolis of Latium, is an historical fact; the contest of three Roman against three Albanian brothers, their cousins, is probably only a personified designation of a war between two closely related towns, with similar political divisions.

As regards the last three reigns, it can be considered historical that the royal family of the Tarquins was of Etruscan origin; that under its rule Rome made an important advance in power and civilization; that the division of the people into *classes*, the erection of the so-called Servian wall, portions of which are still in existence, and the construc-

tion of the first cloacæ date from their reigns.

At the commencement of the actual history of Rome there is found to exist a sharp division of the population into Patricians, or citizens with full political rights, and Plebeians, or free inhabitants without political rights (like the Lacedæmonian *Periæci* and the Athenian Metæci; see pp. 50 and 52). The traditional legend gives no explanation of this important fact, but only two hints at one, and those contradictory.2 The citizens having full rights are evidently the descendants of the original settlers, the victors and later conquerors. Since, according to Roman usage, marriages of equals in rank conferred the rights of citizenship on the children, those having such rights called themselves Patricii, i. e. "Children of the fathers." The people who were not included in these families, but stood under their protection, who were compelled to have a protector (Patronus), were distinguished by the name Clientes (from cluere). Their descendants, increased by the former citizens of Latin towns conquered in war, formed gradually a second Roman community, whose members were not citizens. These were called the Plebeians, the Plebs (or

² See page 88 the reign of Romulus, and p. 89, that of Ancus Marcius. Comp. Mommson, Hist. of Greece, Book I. chap. 5.

¹ See Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book I. chap. 4. Peter, Rom. Gesch. I⁸ 54-56) likewise ascribes but a limited historical value to the traditional history of the kings.

plebes, connected with pleo, plenus); i. e. the masses, the great mob. As the majority of the population of conquered cities were compelled to enter the plebeian class, whether they were settled in or near Rome or remained in their old homes, it is incorrect to imagine the plebs composed of poor people entirely; there were from the beginning

many wealthy and respected families among them.

Under the oldest constitution of Rome, which is commonly called, from the legend, the Constitution of Romulus, the Patricians alone formed the municipality and the military force, the populus (connected with populari, to ravage), since they alone performed military service. They were divided into curiæ, districts, at first 10 in number, after the union of the Titus and Luceres with the Ramnes 30 (p. 88), each curia being divided into ten families or gentes. The assembly (populus) of the citizens or patricians, called by the king when he had an announcement or an inquiry to make, formed the comitia curiata. To this body citizens under sentence had the right of appeal for pardon (provocatio); only, however, with the consent of the king. The comitia elected the king, who, after election, exercised absolute power, having to consult the community only when changes of the existing law or the commencement of an offen-sive war were in question. The Senate (council of the elders, seniores, senatores) was an advisatory body, named by the king, but representing the gentes after a manner.

This oldest form of the community was essentially altered by a reform conducted during the reign of the last dynasty, and which tradition has coupled with the name of Servius Tullius. Military service and payment of the tributum was thereby made obligatory on all land-owners, whether they were citizens or merely inhabitants of the class of meteci. Every freeholder between seventeen and sixty years of age was now liable to service. The cavalry, composed of citizens, continued as before, but there was added to it a force of double its strength, which consisted wholly, or in great part, of plebeians. The wealthiest land-owners were drawn upon to furnish the cavalry. No regard at all was paid to political or class differences in making up the infantry, but the kind of armor to be furnished by the warriors was regulated in accordance with a property classifica-

tion. This is the

Servian classification, for military service and taxation, of Patricians and Plebeians according to their property (Census).

A. Cavalry (Equites).

6 pure (?) patrician, 12 plebeian (and patrician) centuries; in all 1800 horse, all of the first class.

1 The census was not expressed in money until the time of Appius Claudius (B. C. 312). Leighton, Hist. of Rome, p. 22, n. 5. [Trans.]

B. Foot-Soldiers (Pedites).

Class.		Number of Centuries.	Property in Asses.	1 Armor.	Weapons.
1.	2	80 C. with 20 jugera	100,000	galea, clipeus, oc-	म
2.	Senio	20 C. with \ as much	75,000	reæ, lorīca galea, scutum, ocreæ	, hasta
3. 4. 5.	d Junio	20 C. with \(\frac{1}{2}\) as much 20 C. with \(\frac{1}{2}\) as much 28 C. with \(\frac{1}{2}\) (1-10) as	50,000 25,000 12,000	galea, scutum scutum	gladius,
	- 1	much	·		fundæ

It appears from the number of centuries (i. e. companies) in the different classes, that the division of the land at that time was such that more than half the farms contained 20 jugera or more, and a farm of that size was considered the standard.

In the five classes: 168 centuries of foot-soldiers, each of 100 men = 16,800 men; i. e. 4 legions of 4200 men each, 2 legions juniores (first levy, 17-46 years old, for service in the field) and 2 legions seniores (second levy, 47-60 years old, for garrison service). To be added are 3 centuries of fabri (pioneers), tubicines and cornucines (musicians), 2 centuries accensi velati (unarmed substitutes), 2 centuries proletarii and capite censi, making, with the cavalry, 193 centuries. As the population increased the number of centuries was not enlarged, but the separate divisions were strengthened by the addition of new recruits, without doing away entirely with the standard number.

This new military body, arranged in classes and centuries, was henceforward consulted by the king in regard to offensive wars as the army had been when divided into curiæ. This was at first the only privilege which the new citizens shared; all other rights were reserved to the comitia curiata, which consisted exclusively of patricians. It was not until later (at the beginning of the Republic) that the new arrangement of the community acquired political importance, and that a new popular assembly, the comitia centuriata, developed out of the new military organization. The reform ascribed to Servius had originally a purely military character. It gave the Plebeians at first scarcely any rights, but only burdens; it opened the way, however, whereby they became true citizens. The inhabitants who were not land-owners, be they clientes or foreign metæci, were henceforward distinct from the land-owning plebs. The inhabitants who owned no land were called, after the money which they had to pay for protection, ærarii.²

For purposes of conscription the city and township were divided into four wards (Tribus), so that each legion contained the same number of recruits from each ward. Every 4, later every 5 years a new census was taken, which closed with a sacrifice for purification (lustrum), whence in later times lustrum denoted a space of five years.

¹ Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book I. chap. 6. Livius, I., 42 and foll. 2 Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book I. chap. 6.

SECOND PERIOD.

Struggles between Patricians and Plebeians, Subjugation of Italy Proper, to the Beginning of the Punic Wars (510-264).

510 (?). Expulsion of the Tarquins, Rome a Republic.

According to Roman tradition, the consuls for the first year of the republic were

Lucius Junius Brutus and L. Tarquinius Collatinus. **509** (?). The latter, it is said, being related to the exiled royal family, soon fell under suspicion, and was replaced by L. Valerius Poplicola, the first Consul suffectus, to whom tradition ascribes the lex Valeria de provocatione (Ne quis magistratus civem Romanum adversus provocationem (p. 91) neceret neve verberaret). the same authority, the first dictator (p. 94) was Titus Lartius (501, against the Sabines). The Grecian historian Polybius calls the consuls of the first year

509 (?). Lucius Junius Brutus and Marcus Horatius.1

We know absolutely nothing which is historically authenticated about the details of this revolution. This alone is certain, that the arbitrary rule of the last king brought about his expulsion and the banishment of the whole gens Tarquinia. (The family sepulchre has been discovered in Cære, in Etruria). The fear lest the commonwealth should be transformed into a tyranny seems to have united

the patricians and plebeians for a short time.

We are better informed about the nature of the constitutional change, since on this point inferences can be drawn from the institutions which we find in existence in historic times. The change in the constitution was, as far as this is possible in a revolution, conservative in character. The sovereign reigning during life was replaced by two rulers holding office for a year, taken from the patricians. They were called at first Praetores, Judices, or Consules; later, the latter name only was applied to them.2 They exercised, generally, regal power: Imperium (i. e. sovereignty in war and peace); auspicia publica (i. e. supplication of the gods in behalf of the state); convening the popular assembly and the senate; taking the census; appointment of senators and the two patrician quæstors. The latter, whose office was established during the time of the kings, exercised the functions of criminal police, and soon acquired the administration of the state treasury under the supervision of the consuls. The consuls were assigned 12 lictores as a public indication of their official power.

1 Polybius, III. 22. The statement of Polybius, that the first treaty be-

tween Rome and Carthage fell in the first year of the Republic, is disputed by Mommsen (Röm. Chronologie bis auf Cæsar, 2 Ed. p. 320), but is strongly defended by Nissen (Jahrbücher für Philologie, 1867), and others.

2 The derivation of consul and prætor is doubtful. Consul denotes either "administrator of the state" (qui consulit reipublicæ), or merely colleague. Prætor denotes "general" (qui præit exercitui, like the German Herzog), or one who presides over the state (qui pracit, pracest reipublicae). See Marquardt-Mommsen, Röm. Alterthümer, II. p. 71 f.

According to the lex Valeria de provocatione 1 (509), all citizens had right of appeal from sentences of death pronounced by the consuls, which were not delivered according to military law, to the people, even against the will of the consuls; and this appeal was not to the old "populus," composed of patricians, but to the comitia centuriata, the assembly of the new military and political com-

munity founded by the Servian constitution (p. 92).

The comitia centuriata acquired, moreover, in consequence of the violent alteration of the constitution, the right to elect the consuls, or rather, according to old Roman interpretation, the right of designating them to the consul who presided over the election, who thereupon appointed them (creare). The comitia centuriata acquired also the right of accepting or rejecting bills laid before it, but the six patrician centuries of equites retained the important right of voting first on any proposed measures.

The **Senate**, formerly consisting of patricians exclusively, was now enlarged, or rather brought up to its legal number, by the admission of plebeians from the *equites*, i. e. the wealthy. Hence the

formula: Patres [et] conscripti.

The nature of the changes which the comitia curiata (p. 91) underwent in consequence of the revolution is much disputed; it is certain only that it soon sank into complete insignificance. According to the view which is most commonly received, it retained at first the right of approving the elections or resolves of the comitia centuriata, a privilege expressed by the formula patres (i. e. patricii) auctores fiunt.² Others understand the expression patres to apply to the senatores, and claim the right of approval mentioned above for the Senate.⁸

At a time of special danger the consuls were replaced by an extraordinary official, the dictator, or magister populi, who was not elected, but appointed by one of the consuls (dictatorem dicere) without the participation of the citizens. (Practically, however, the Senate commonly played an important part in the selection.) As soon as danger was over the dictator resigned his office (dictatura se abdicare), which he could not hold longer than six months in any event. The dictator appointed his magister equitum (master of the horse); the sign of his power, which was thoroughly royal, was 24 (?) lictors. Appeal from his decisions was allowed only in cases where it had been permitted against the king (p. 91).

^{1 &}quot;The habeas corpus act of the Romans." Leighton, Hist. of Rome, p. 53. [Trans.]

² Becker, Rom. Alth. II. 3, p. 183, u. Schwegler, Röm. Gesch. II. 160.

⁸ According to Mommsen (Hist. of Rome, I. 264), all new citizens, that is, all land-owning plebeians were in consequence of the revolution (510) admitted to the comitia curiata, and the old body of citizens, or the patricians, thereby lost the right of debating and deciding for political purposes, in an assembly apart from the rest of the citizens. This opinion is opposed by other scholars, who maintain that plebeians were first admitted to the comitia curiata toward the end of the Republic. Mommsen thinks that the right of approval belonged to the smaller, purely patrician senate, while the larger senate, increased by the addition of plebeian conscripti, was, during the first years of the Republic, an advisatory council for the consuls.

509. According to the Roman legend a conspiracy of young patricians was discovered in Rome, which purposed the restora-

tion of the monarchy. Execution of Brutus' son.

508. Unsuccessful war of the Romans against the Etruscan king Porsena of Clusium. The Romans were defeated, and compelled to purchase peace by a surrender of territory and complete disarming. Roman story of Horatius Cocles, the brave defender of the bridge over the Tiber, of the heroic courage of Mucius Scævola (i. e. left-handed; the well-known story is probably only an attempt to explain the name), and Clælia, in Livius II. 9–13. When the Etruscans advanced further into Latium they were defeated by the Latins and their allies from lower Italy before Aricia, and could not maintain themselves on the left bank of the Tiber. In consequence of this Etruscan defeat, Rome seems to have freed itself from the disgraceful peace imposed upon it, and to have gradually regained its former powerful position.

496 (?). Tradition of a great victory of the Romans over the Latins by the small lake Regillus, near Tusculum, won by the dictator, Aulus Postumius, with the aid of the Dioscuri (Livius II. 19).

The inner history of the Roman community for this period deals with two contests, one political and one social. I. Contest of the patricians, who gradually developed into an hereditary nobility, against the new citizens, or plebeians. The latter, who could, it is true, become senators (conscripti), but were excluded from the offices of state and from the priesthood, aimed at complete political equality. Since the offices of state in Rome, as among the ancients generally, were administered without pay (hence, honores, officers of honor), it was essentially the wealthier plebeian families alone who were interested in this contest. II. The social contest between the well-to-do property-owners and the owners or renters of small farms, who were growing poorer, or had been deprived of their possessions.

The use of the ager publicus, i. e. the public land, acquired by conquest (comprising both cultivated land and pasture), belonged legally to the patricians only. In fact the senate made exceptions in favor of the rich plebeian houses which had become members; the small plebeian land-owners and renters were strictly excluded from the privilege. Very seldom, on occasion of new conquests, a distribution of land was made among the poor plebeians, but the greater part of the state domain was leased to the patrician land-owners for a moderate rent, which was, probably, hardly ever regularly collected, and these estates were soon treated as private property. Gradually the tillage of the large farms was given over to slaves, and the plebeian tenants were thereby driven from their holdings. The plebeian owners of small peasant holdings sank into a condition of the greatest misery, through frequent military service, taxation, excessive interest on loans, and the cruel Roman law of debt, which placed the person and property of the debtor in the creditor's hands. In consequence of this there were repeated uprisings and refusals to perform military service, which, in 495, was overcome only by the appointment

of a dictator. Finally, when the patricians refused to grant the promised alleviations, and continued their ill treatment of those who became their slaves through debt (nexi), the plebeian soldiers in the victorious army, as they were returning home, turned aside, under the leadership of plebeian military tribunes, to a small hill on the Anio (later called Mons Sacer), and threatened to found a plebeian city in that fertile region (three miles from Rome). This is the so-called

- 494 (?).¹ Secession of the Plebeians to the Sacred Mount (secessio plebis in montem sacrum), which compelled the patricians (Menenius Agrippa, fable of the belly and the members) to make sincere concessions. After abrogation of the oppressive debts,
- 494 (?). Creation of the tribunate (tribuni plebis) and the plebeian ædiles.

The tribunes of the people (at first 2(?), then 5, finally 10), were always chosen from the plebs.2 They were inviolable (sacrosancti). They had the right of protection (jus auxilii) for every plebeian against injustice on the part of an official. This privilege developed into an extensive right of intercession (jus intercessionis) against every administrative or judicial act, with the exception of the imperium militare, — that is to say, against the dictator and against the consul when he was more than a mile from the city. From the first the tribunes of the people exercised judicial functions, convened the assemblies of the plebeians, and proposed criminal sentences for their consideration. Later (448), the tribunes were admitted to the senate, where, by their **veto**, they could deprive any resolution of the senate (senatus consultus) of its legislative force, and reduce it to a mere expression of opinion (senatus auctoritas). The two ædiles of the people (ædiles plebis) assisted the tribunes, and superintended the business of the markets. Their name was probably derived from the temple (ædes) of Ceres, where they preserved the official document which decreed the establishment of the plebeian magistracy.

During this time (according to some authorities, not until later) occurred the establishment of the important comitia tributa. In this assembly the citizens voted according to wards or tribus; not, however, the four wards of the Servian constitution (p. 92), but according to a later (perhaps 495) division into 20 tribus, to which was added the Crustuminian tribus (494), making 21, and the number gradually rose to 35. It is probable that, down to the time of the legislation of the decemvirs, plebeians only, after that time, however, the whole body of land-owning inhabitants, both patricians and plebeians, voted in the comitia tributa.8 In this comitia

¹ Cf. Mommson, Hist. of Rome, I. 279.

² It is commonly assumed as probable that up to the lex Publilia (472) the tribunes were elected in the *comitia centuriata*, and approved by the *comitia curiata*. According to the testimony of **Dionysius** (IX. 41) and **Cicero** (pro Corn.), they were chosen by the curiata; according to **Mommsen's** view (p. 94, note), this denotes that they were at first elected by the *plebeians* assembled by curiæ.

⁸ See the different opinions in Becker, Röm. Alther., II. 1, p. 175 and 399.

487.

each tribus had one vote, which was decided by the majority of voters in the tribus. Compared with the comitia centuriata, therefore, the ascendency of the wealthy was done away with, as was also the privi-

lege, enjoyed by the nobility, of throwing their votes first.

In the consulate of Spurius Cassius, renewal of the eternal alliance between Rome and the Latin league on a house of equality. Only gradually did Rome acquire again the hegemony over the Latins. Continual disputes with Etrasons, Sabines, Æqui, Volscians. Continuation of the contests between patricians and plebeians; the institution of the tribunate proving to be the organization of civil strife and anarchy. An attempt was soon made to abolish the tribunate by the patrician

Cn. (C.?) Marcius, called Coriolanus (from the storm of **491**. Corioli), who, during a famine, proposed to grant the plebenant grain at the expense of the state, only on condition that they gave up the tribunate. When summoned by the tribunes before the comitia tributa, Coriolanus declined to appear; being banished in his absence, he went to the Volscians, and, according to the story, led their troops against Rome, but, at the rebuke of his mother, Veturia, and the entreaties of his wife, Volumnia, gave up the war against his native city (Livius, II. 40).

The Hernici invaded the Roman territory. Being defeated by the consul Aquillius, and, in the next year, by the consul Syu-

rius Cassius, the

Hernici joined the Latin league. **486.**

Spurius Cassius Viscellinus (Vecellinus!), consul for the **48**6. third time, brought forward the first agrarian law. He proposed to divide a part of the public lands among needy pleheuns and Latins; the rest to be actually leased for the profit of the public treasury. The patricians and wealthy plebeians joined forces against Spurius Cassius; the lower classes were dissutisfied that the Latins should also receive land and abandoned him. After the close of his term of office he was sentenced and executed.

Withdrawal of the gens Fabia and their **479**.

destruction by the Etruscans at the brook Cremera. **477**.

- **473**. Murder of the tribune of the people, Gnaus Genucius, who had ventured to call two consuls to account.
- Law carried by the tribune of the people, Volero Publilius, **472**. to the effect that the plebeian magistrates should, in future, be elected by the comitia tributa (lex publilia: ut magistratus plebei comitiis tributis creentur, p. 96).

Plague in Rome and throughout Italy. **463**.

Motion of the tribune of the people, C. Terentilius Arsa, for **462**. the appointment of a body of ten men to reduce the laws to a written code. Violent opposition of the patricians.

Surprise of the Capitol by Herdonius at the head of some polit-**460**.

ical refugees (Livius III. 15).

Renewal of civil discord. In order to satisfy the plebeians, the num-

ber of tribunes of the people was raised from 5 to 10 (457); in the following year the *Mons Aventinus* was divided into building lots, which were distributed among the poor citizens. Dictatorship of *L. Quinctius Cincinnatus*, who rescued an army which had been surrounded by the Æqui (Livius III. 26). A compromise was reached in regard to the codification of the laws, whereby three ambassadors were sent to Greece to bring back copies of the Solonian laws and others (454). After their return

451. Decemvirs, a body of ten men, were chosen from the patricians (Decemviri consulari imperio legibus scribundis), and the consulate, tribunate, and right of appeal were for the time suspended. The code of laws drawn up by the decemvirs was accepted by the people, engraved on copper tables, and set up

in the forum. As an appendix seemed necessary,

Decemvirs were appointed again, three being plebeians, who added two more tables. Henceforward the law of the city and county of Rome, according to which the consuls were to exercise their judicial functions, was known as the laws of the twelve tables (Leges duodecim tabularum). By their exposure the patrician administration was henceforth subjected to the control of public judgment. Instead of giving place to the regular magistrates after the completion of the two supplementary tables the decemvirs remained in office during the succeeding year (449). An attempt of the moderate aristocracy, headed by the Valerii and Horatii, to compel the abdication of the decemvirs, was unsuccessful. The latter, under Appius Claudius, the head of the extreme party of the nobles, acquired the preponderance in the state. At first the people submitted and acquiesced in a levy for the war against the Sabines and Volscians. The oppression of the decemvirs, especially of Appius Claudius: murder of the former tribune of the people, Siccius Dentatus, and the attack on the liberty and honor of the betrothed of the former tribune L. Icilius, Virginia, whom her own father Virginius stabbed in the forum, brought about an uprising (Liv. III. 44 foll.). The plebeian soldiers occupied the Aventine and the Sacred Mount. Valerius and Horatius managed a compromise, according to which the decemvirs abdicated. Applus Claudius and Spurius Oppius disembowelled themselves in prison, the others were sent into exile. It is impossible to decide what part of this romantic story is historical. It seems certain that the consulate and tribunate were reëstablished. The power of the nobility was further weakened by the

1. The resolves (plebiscita) of the comitia tributa were given equal force with those of the comitia centuriata (ut quod tributim plebs jussisset populum teneret). 2. Every magistrate, including therefore, the dictator, was obliged, in future, to allow appeals from his decision (ne quis ullum magistratum sine provocatione crearet, qui creasset, eum jus fasque esset occidi). 3. Recognitione crearet.

nition of the inviolability of the tribunes of the people, and extension of the same privilege to the ædiles (ut qui tribunis plebis, ædilibus nocuisset, ejus caput Jovi sacrum esset). About the same time (447) two quæstors were appointed whose peculiar charge was the military treasury (making in all 4 quæstors, see p. 93); they were patricians, but were appointed by the comitia tributa, wherein both patricians and plebeians voted henceforward, if not before (p. 96). In 421 the quæstorship was opened to the plebeians. Moreover, the tribunes of the people acquired the right of taking auspices, and were admitted to the senate, though at first required to occupy a bench near the door.

445. Law of the tribune Canuleius legalizing marriage between patricians and plebeians (lex Canuleia de conubio: ut conubia plebei cum patribus essent). The children inherit the rank of the father. The motion brought forward by this tribune that the consuls might be chosen from the plebeians (ut populo potestas esset, seu de plebe seu de patribus vellet, consules faciendi), was violently opposed by the nobility. A compromise was effected, and it was decreed that instead of consuls

444. military tribunes (6) with consular power (tribuni militum consulari potestate)

should be appointed, and that to this office plebeians could be elected. At the same time creation of a new patrician office, that of censor. The two censors were elected in the comitia centuriata, at first for 5 (4?) years, after 434 for 18 months, but every fifth year only, so that the office was vacant $3\frac{1}{2}$ years out of every five. Functions of the censors: 1. Taking the census every 5 (4?) years (after every lustrum), and compiling the lists of citizens and taxes; appointment of senators (lectio senatus) and the equites (recognitio equitum). 2. Preparation and publication of the budget, management of the state property, farming the indirect taxes (vectigalia), superintendence of the public buildings. 3. Supervision of the public morality (regimen morum). The duties and privileges included under the latter head gave the office great moral and political importance in the next century (Notatio censoria).

439. Spurius Mælius, a rich plebeian, who, during a famine, distributed grain at a low price, was accused of aiming at royal power, and was slain by C. Servilius Ahala, the master of the horse of the octogenarian dictator, L. Quinctius Cincinnatus.

the history of which, like that of the previous wars with the Etruscans, has been much ornamented by tradition. The long continuance and obstinacy of the war with Veii is proved by the fact that then for the first time the campaigns were not interrupted during the winter. The result was, that the citizens who served in the army now for the first time received pay from the public treasury (i. e. out of the taxes on the public lands). Capture and destruction of Veii by the

1 Leighton, Hist. of Rome, p. 70, note 1. [TRANS.]

dictator, M. Furius Camillus. The fall of Veii marks the beginning of the decline of the Etruscan power, which was hard pressed at the same time by the Latins in the south, Celts (Gauls) from beyond the Alps in the north, and from the sea by the Sicilian and Italian Greeks, especially the Syracusans, whose attacks had endured upward of a century.

391. Camillus went into exile in consequence of a complaint of in-

justice in the division of the booty from Veii.

Latium invaded by the Gauls in consequence of Roman ambassadors having taken part, in the war of the Etruscans of Clusium, against the Gauls. The Gauls demanded that the ambassadors (the three Fabii) should be delivered to them, to which the senate agreed. The proposal was, however, rejected by the citizens.

390 (July 18). Battle of the Allia,

a brook, which falls into the Tiber eleven miles north of Rome. Utter defeat and rout of the Romans on the right bank of the Tiber, whereby the city was left defenceless. Abandoned by the citizens (the Mons Capitolinus alone continued to be occupied), Rome was taken, plundered, and burnt by the Gauls under their Brennus, i. e. military ruler. Slaughter of the senators. Unsuccessful attempt to surprise the Capitol. The geese of Juno. M. Manlius Capitolinus. After a seven months' siege of the fortress, the withdrawal of the Gauls was purchased with gold. Legend (a later invention) of an expulsion of the enemy by a victory of Camillus, who surprised the haughty Brennus (Væ victis!) in the forum, while the gold was being weighed (!). Return of the inhabitants. The plan of emigrating to Veii broken up by Camillus. Hasty, but irregular, reconstruction of the city, which soon regained its old power, after the Æqui, the Volscians, and the Etruscans, who had taken up arms again, had been defeated by Camillus.

Equalization of the old orders. Origin of the new nobility.

Recommencement of the civil contests against the patricians: 1, by the plebeian aristocracy to get admission to the consulate; 2, by the poor, indebted plebeians to obtain a reform of the laws of debtor and creditor, and a share of the public lands. The exertions of those tribunes who were friendly to the poorer classes were often neutralized by the opposition of their colleagues who represented the interests of the plebeian aristocracy. The patrician M. Manlius Capitolinus, who had released plebeian debtors at his own expense, was accused of aiming at royal power, declared guilty of high treason, and thrown from the Tarpeian rock (384). A compromise was finally agreed upon between the plebeian aristocracy and the plebeian commons, whose results were seen in the

376. Laws proposed by C. Licinius and Lucius Sextus, tribunes of the people (rogationes Liciniæ). The first two were designed to secure the poorer classes a material alleviation; the third to give the plebeian aristocracy the long-wished-for equality with the patricians.

I. Relief of the debtors by the deduction of interest already paid from the principal; the rest to be paid within three years in three installments (ut, deducto eo de capite quod usuris pernumeratum esset, id quod superesset triennio æquis portionibus persolveretur).

II. No one should possess more than 500 jugera of the public

lands (ne quis plus quam quingenta jugera agri publici 1 possideret).

III. Abolition of the tribuni militum consulari potestate. One, at least, of the two consuls must be chosen from the plebeians (ne tribunorum militum comitia fierent consulumque utique alter ex plebe crearetur).

After a long contest, and after the appointment of Camillus to the

dictatorship had failed to accomplish anything,

367. The Licinian laws were passed.

366. L. Sextus Lateranus, colleague of the tribune Licinius, first plebeian consul. At the same time one of the three great colleges of priests (decemviri [formerly duoviri] sacris faciundis)

was opened to the plebeians.

In order to retain at least the administration of the judicial department in the hands of their order, the patricians procured the establishment of a new patrician magistracy, the prætorship. The prætor (since 243, one prætor urbanus, and one prætor inter cives et peregrinos; since 227, four; since 197, six prætors) had the jurisdiction (dare sc. judicem, dicere, sc. sententiam, addicere, sc. rem), and was the vicegerent of the consuls during their absence. At the same time a new ædile was appointed, called, to distinguish him from the plebeian officer of that name, the curule ædile; this office was, however, soon (probably since 364; certainly since 304) made accessible to the plebeians, and patrician and plebeian curule ædiles were elected for alternate years. The duties of the two ædiles curules were: 1. to manage the ludi Romani; 2. to supervise the markets and the street-police, and to preside in the police courts connected therewith.

Although after the passage of the Licinian laws the patricians continued their opposition to the political equalization of the orders, and even succeeded several times in electing two patrician consuls in open violation of the third Licinian law, all public offices were, nevertheless, opened to all Roman citizens, in rapid succession: the dictatorship 356 (the office of magister equitum before the adoption of the Licinian laws 368), the censorship actually 351, legally 338, the prætorship 337, the colleges of pontifices and augures (the number of members in each being increased to nine) 300, by the lex Ogulnia. The patrician order thereupon ceased to exist as a legally privileged caste, and con-

tinued only as a social order or rank.

A new nobility (optimates, nobiles) was gradually developed in political life, composed of those patrician and plebeian families which had for the longest time retained possession of the chief public offices (summi honores). These families regarded every citizen who obtained office, but did not belong to their set, as an upstart (homo novus). The

¹ The word publici is lacking in the text of Livius (VI. 35). But it is clear that the law could have referred to public land only. ('f. Niebuhr, llist. of Rome, III. 11; and Mommson, Hist. of Rome, I. 304 foll.

new nobility could not, however, separate itself so sharply from the common people as the patrician order had done, but increased its ranks constantly from the most promising portion of the lower classes.

Through the equalization of the plebeian aristocracy with the patricians, the office of tribune, which was generally in the hands of the most distinguished plebeian families, lost, for a time at least, its revolutionary and anarchic character. The tribunes of the people soon obtained not only seats and votes in the senate, but also the right to convene it. Growing importance of the senate, which from this time on was the principal executive body governing the state. Since the establishment of the republic the senators had represented both orders (p. 94). They acquired their membership neither by the accident of birth, nor by the direct choice of the people. censors (p. 99) filled vacancies in the senate principally from the numbers of those citizens which had occupied the office of quæstor (p. 99) or a higher office. Their age was at least 30 years; probably a property qualification was soon required. Being appointed for life, but subjected every four (5) years to a new lectio of the censors, who could expel unworthy members, the Roman senators were independent of a fickle public opinion. To the wise and energetic conduct of the senate Rome chiefly owed the great growth of her power which took place in the near future.

As formerly, the comitiæ exercised the rights of sovereignty proper, especially the comitia centuriata and the comitia tributa, in which all citizens, patricians and plebeians alike, were included (p. 96), while the right of approval vested in the patrician comitia curiata (or the narrower patrician senate, p. 94) became an empty form. Here belong two of the three laws of the plebeian dictator, Publilius Philo (leges Publiliæ), of the year 338: 1. A vote of the comitia tributa shall have the force of law without having been approved by the comitia curiata (ut plebiscita omnes Quirites tenerent). 2. Laws presented to the centuries shall be approved beforehand (ut legum, quæ comitiis centuriatis ferrentur, patres ante initium suffragium auctores fierent). 3. One censor must be a plebeian (ut alter ubique ex plebe censor crearetur). The same Publilius Philo became the first

plebeian prætor in 337.

In the year 312 the censor Appius Claudius included the inhabitants of Rome who were not freeholders in the tribes which they preferred, and in the centuries according to their property. This farreaching and actually revolutionary change in the comitia centuriata and tributa was altered in a conservative sense by the censor Q. Fabius Rullianus (Maximus) in the year 304. As regards the comitia tributa, those freemen who were not freeholders, and those freedmen (libertini) whose property in land was valued at less than 30,000 sestertes (about \$1500), were divided among the four city wards (tribus urbanæ), which now became the last in rank instead of the first. The country wards (tribus rusticæ), the number of which had by the year 241 risen from 17 to 31 (making the whole number of the tribes 35, p. 96), were reserved for freemen who were freeholders, and for freedmen having larger Linded properties. In the comitia

centuriata, where the wealthy members had already acquired many privileges, equality of the freemen who were and those who were not freeholders was secured; but the freedmen, with exception of those of the first two classes, were entirely shut out from the centuries.1

The Licinian laws had naturally only ameliorated, not radically cured, the desperate condition of the poor and indebted plebeians. The law of the consul Pœtelius (lex Pœtelia), passed in 326 or 313, secured to every insolvent debtor who should transfer his property to the creditor his personal freedom (ne quis æris alieni causa nectatur, utique bona tantummodo obnoxia sint). By these and other ameliorations, and by the ever-increasing foundation of colonies of citizens and division of public lands among the poor, in consequence of successful wars, the social question was for a short time forced into the background.

At this time occurred the alteration in the Servian constitution of the army.² Division of the new legion into 30 maniples, each containing 3 centuries. Arrangement in order of battle in three lines (hastati, principes, triarii). The assignment of arms according to property classification was abolished. Long lances (hasta) were reserved for the third line, the first and second line receiving in their stead the pilum, a short spear, adapted both for thrusting and hurl-

ing. A short cut and thrust sword was used by all.

367-349. Four wars with the Gauls who had permanently settled in upper Italy (henceforward known as Gallia Cisalpina), and thence made frequent inroads into central Italy. In the first war single combat between T. Manlius Torquatus and a gi-gantic Gaul; in the second, the first triumph of a plebeian consul. The fourth war was ended by a great defeat inflicted upon the Gauls in the Pomptine region by the consul M. Farius Camillus, the younger. Single combat of M. Valerius Corvus with a Gaul.

362. Story of a chasm opened in the forum closed by the sacrifice of M. Curtius.

War with the Hernici and the revolted Latin cities **362–358.** (especially Tibur), ending in the renewal of the old league between Rome on the one part and the Latins and Hernici on the other; whereby both people were more strictly subjected to the Romans than before.

358-351. Wars with the Etruscan cities Tarquinii, Cære, and Falerii (victory of C. Marcius Rutilius, the first plebeian dictator, 356), which led to the reduction of the whole of southern Etruria under Roman supremacy.

(First?) treaty of commerce between Rome and Carthage,8 the text of which has been preserved by Polybius (III. 22).

War with the Volscii, who were defeated in 346 at Satricum, and the Aurunci. The power of both peoples was completely broken. The Roman legions forced their way south-

¹ Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book II. chap. 3. 2 Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, Book II. chap. 8, and Peter, I.8, 222 foll. 8 See p. 93, note 1.

ward without stay. This great development of Rome's power brought about the

343-266. wars with the Samnites, the other Italians, and the Greek cities of Italy.

Result: Subjugation of all Italy to the Rubicon and Macra, under the supremacy of Rome.

343-341. First war with the Samnites.

Cause: The Sidici in Teanum and the Campanians in Capua, both Samnite tribes who had emigrated from their home, asked aid of the Romans against their relatives, the Samnites of the mountains, who had formed a confederacy in Samnium proper, whence they con-

tinually ravaged the plain (Campania), with new swarms.

According to the Roman tradition, their armies gained three victories in Campania over the Samnites: victory of M. Valerius Corvus on Mount Gaurus (near Cumæ); victory of A. Cornelius Cossus, after his army had been rescued by P. Decius Mus, a military tribune; finally, victory of both Roman armies at Suessula. The war was ended by a treaty, whereby Rome received Capua, the Samnites Teanum. The Samnites were induced to conclude this treaty by a war with Tarentum, the Romans by the

340-338. Great Latin War.

The Latins rebelled against the hegemony of Rome and demanded complete equality with the Romans. One consul and half the senate were to be Latins. Capua (in spite of the opposition of the optimates) and the Volscii were allied with the Latins.

Victory of the (Roman and Samnite?) armies over the Latins and Campanians in the neighborhood of Vesuvius under the consul T. Manlius Imperiosus. Execution of the young son of the consul, who against his father's command had fought with the Latin commander and defeated him. P. Decius Mus sacrificed his life for the safety of his army. Decisive battle at Trifanum (between Minturnæ and Suessa); victory of the consul Manlius over the Latins and Campanians.

Dissolution of the Latin League, which became a mere religious association for the celebration of festivals. Isolation of the Latin cities from one another. Commercium and connubium between them were prohibited. Most of the cities received Roman citizenship without suffrage, i. e. they became subjects. Several were obliged to cede land, which was divided among Roman citizens; others were converted into Roman colonies (p. 109), e. g. Antium. The orator's stand in the forum Romanum was ornamented with the bows of the old ships of this city (hence rostra). The Roman power in the territories of the Volscii and in Campania was strengthened by the settlement of colonies of Roman citizens. Capua and other cities became dependent Roman communities (p. 109).

¹ Livius, VII. 29 foll. See this tradition criticised by Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, I. 365, note.

326-304. Second war with the Samnites and the other Italians.

Cause: Encroachments of the Romans on the Liris, especially the transformation of Fregellæ into a Roman colony, and the capture of Palæopolis (twin city of Neopolis), by Q. Publilius Philo, the first pro-consul.

Alliance of the Romans with the Apulians and Lucanians and, in the course of the war, with the Sabellian cities south of the Volturnus (Nola, Nuceria, Herculaneum, Pompeii), who at first sided with the

Samnites.

The Romans had the advantage in the first years of the war, and crossed Samnium to Apulia, plundering as they went; but in 321 the consuls Sp. Postumius and T. Veturius, hastening from Campania to the assistance of the Apulian city Luceria, were surrounded by the Samnites under Gavius Pontius in the Caudine Pass (furculæ Caudinæ), near the present Arpaja, and compelled to capitulate, swear to a treaty of peace, and give 600 Roman equites as hostages. The whole Roman army was sent under the yoke. The Roman senate refused to approve the treaty, and delivered the consuls to the Samnites, who refused to receive them.

The Samnites conquered Luceria in Apulia and Fregellæ on the Liris. By desperate exertions the Romans got the upper hand again. In 319 the Roman consul L. Papirius Cursor reconquered Luceria, released the Roman hostages, and sent the Samnite garrison under the yoke. The war went on during the succeeding years with changing fortune; nevertheless, the Romans subdued their revolted allies and subjects, and punished the leaders in the revolt with death. They defeated the Samnites at Capua, drove them out of Campania completely, and reconquered Fregellæ. Settlement of new colonies (p. 109). Construction of a great military road from Rome to Capua, through the Pomptine marshes, the Via Appia, part of which still remains.

(Begun under the censor Appius Claudius, 312).

After 312, when the 40 years' peace with the Etruscans expired, the Etruscan cities took part in the war against Rome. Soon the whole of Etruria, which was still independent, was in arms against the destroyer of Italian liberty. Siege of the Roman border fortress, Sutrium. The victorious advance of the consul Q. Fabius Rullianus through the Ciminian forest, and his victory at the Vadimonian lake (310) caused the powerful cities of Perusia, Cortona, Arretium, to withdraw from the coalition against Rome, and effected after 308 a provisional truce throughout Etruria. The Umbrians, Picentini, Marsians, Frentanians, Pælignians, who had joined the Italian coalition, continued the war, and were ultimately joined by the The fortune of war for a short time favored the Samnites and their allies, but the Romans soon acquired a decided ascendency. L. Papirius Cursor defeated the Samnites in a great battle Nuceria, the last Campanian town in alliance with the Samnites, was attacked by the Romans by land and sea, and forced to First appearance of a Roman war fleet. The consul L. Postumius invaded Samnium from the Adriatic Sea; another

Roman army advanced from Campania. A decisive victory of the Romans and the capture of Bovianum (305), the capital of the Samnite league, ended the war. The Samnites begged for peace, and with their Sabellian allies obtained a renewal of the old treaties and

equality with Rome.

Foundation of numerous Roman colonies and several military roads; the *Hernican* league was dissolved; the *Volscians* and *Æquians* were obliged to receive Roman citizenship without suffrage. Construction of two great military roads from Rome: the northern (later called *Via Flaminia*) extended to *Narnia* (Nequinum); the southern (later *Via Valeria*) extended by way of *Carsioli* to *Alba Fucentia* (i. e. on lake *Fucinus*), the key to the territory of the *Marsi*.

298-290. Third war against the Samnites and the other Italians.

Cause: The Samnites succeeded in bringing men of their party into power throughout Lucania, and concluded a league with the *Lucanians* in order to risk a final struggle for the independence of Italy. New

rising among the Etruscans.

The consul L. Cornelius Scipio (whose sarcophagus, with an old Latin inscription, discovered in 1780, is still to be seen in the Vatican Museum) forced the Lucanians to abjure their alliance with Samnium. 297, victory of Rullianus at Tifernum; victory of P. Decius Mus at Maluentum. In 296 the desperate exertions of the Samnites enabled them to place three armies in the field: one-to defend their own country, one for Campania, while the third was conducted by its commander Gellius Egnatius through the Marsian and Umbrian lands to Etruria. This prevented the Etruscans from concluding the peace which they had nogotiated with Rome and conjured up the old coalition of the Italians, which was now joined by Gallic tribes. Great prepparations in Rome. The consuls Q. Fabius Rullianus and P. Decius Mus advanced to Umbria with 60,000 men, where in 295 the decisive battle of Sentinum was fought, and by the devotion of P. Decius Mus (Livius, X. 28) after a long contest ended in favor of the Dissolution of the army of the coalition, the Gauls scattered, the Sannites returned to Sannium, the Umbrians submitted, the Etruscans asked for peace in the next year (294). The war lasted in Samnium four years longer with varying fortune. In 293 the Samnites suffered a severe defeat at Aquilonia from L. Papirius Cursor and Spurius Carvilius. In 292 the Samnites gained their last victory under the command of Gavius Pontius the younger.

Finally the Samnites concluded peace with the consul M. Curius Dentatus, as it seems, without ceding territory; but the Romans

Cornéliús Lucius Scipió Barbátus
Gnaivód patré prognátus fórtis vir sapiénsque
quoiús fórma virtutei parisuma (parissima) fúit
consól censór aidilis quei fuit apúd vos
Taurásiá Cisaúna Sámnió cépit
subigit omné Loucánam ópsidésque abdoúcit.

¹ This inscription, which it is conjectured from linguistic reasons, was engraved some time after the death of Scipio, was:—

thereby gained a chance to strengthen their power in the rest of

Italy.

This was accomplished by the foundation of new colonies which should serve as checks on the Italians, especially *Minturnæ* and *Sinuessa* in the territory of the Auruncians, *Hatria* in Picenum, *Venusia* in Apulia. The Sabines were obliged to become subject to Rome, after a short and feeble resistance. At this time, after the Samnite wars, the

286 (?). Hortensian law (lex Hortensia) was passed. Thereby it was settled that all decrees of the comitia tributa should be binding on all citizens. This was accomplished by the dictator Hortensius after a dangerous uprising of the plebeians, who had been unable to come to terms with the opposite party in regard to a reduction of debts, and had withdrawn to the Janiculus (last secessio plebis). About this time questions of peace and alliance began to be submitted to the comitia tributa.

By the lex Mænia the second Publilian law (that the curiæ, or the narrow patrician senate, should assent beforehand to the resolves, see p. 102) was extended to the elections which took place in the comitia centuriata. Nevertheless, the real importance of the public assemblies was declining; they became more and more instruments in the hands of the presiding officers. After a short truce in Italy, in consequence of the peace with the Samnites, there broke out a

285-282. war between Rome and a new Italian coalition.

Cause: The inhabitants of Thurii being attacked by the Lucanians and Bruttians, sought help from the Romans. Alliance of the Lucanians and Bruttians with the Etruscans, Umbrians, and Gauls of northern Italy. The annihilation of a Roman army at Arretium by Senonian mercenaries of the Etruscans was terribly avenged by the Romans. The Gallic tribe of the Senones was in part slaughtered, in part driven from its home in Umbria. A victory of the Romans over the north Italians and their Gallic allies by Lake Vadimonium (283), and another at Populonia (282), inclined the Gauls to peace. After a victory of the consul C. Fabricius over the Lucanians at Thurii the non-Dorian Greek cities joined the Romans. Locri, Croton, and Thurii received Roman garrisons. This advance of the Romans led to the

282-272. War with Tarentum.

Special cause: Old treaties with Tarentum prohibited Roman ships of war from passing the promontory of Lacinium. A Roman war fleet on its way to the Umbrian coast anchored in the harbor of Tarentum. The people, incited by demagogues in the assembly, attacked the vessels, and captured five, whose crews were either put to death or sold into slavery. A Roman embassy which demanded reparation in Tarentum was insulted.

A Roman army advanced into the Tarentine territory. The Tarentines called to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a renowned general and leader of mercenaries, who had long meditated the plan of conquering for himself and the Hellenic nation a new empire in the

west. Pyrrhus at first sent Milon with 3000 Epirotes to Tarentum (281); he himself landed in Italy, the following year, with an army of 25,000 men (Epirotes, Macedonians, Greeks, etc.) and twenty elephants. The war between Pyrrhus and the Romans was a contest of an army of mercenaries against militia, of a military monarchy against the government of a senate. Strict discipline maintained by the king in Tarentum; the theatres were closed, the death penalty imposed on evasion of military service. Great preparations at Rome; even the proletarii, generally free from military service, were enrolled. One Roman army was sent to Etruria, the main army to lower Italy. In the

280. Battle of Heraclea, near the Siris,

the Romans were defeated, after a struggle whose result was long doubtful, by the phalanx and the elephants. Great losses of Pyrrhus. The Bruttians, Lucanians, and Samnites joined the king. The offer of peace made by Pyrrhus to the Romans through Cineas was haughtily rejected by the senate. Speech of the blind consular Appius Claudius. Pyrrhus advanced as far as Anagnia in Campania, but there halted and returned to lower Italy, as two Roman armies took the field against him, and the allies of the Romans remained faithful. Roman embassy (C. Fabricius) sent to Pyrrhus to treat for an exchange of prisoners. In the following year the two armies, each numbering with the allied troops 70,000 men, met in the bloody

279. Battle of A(u)sculum,

in Apulia, which lasted two days, and in which Pyrrhus was

victor, but again suffered enormous loss.

The Syracusans, who, since the death of Agathocles (289, p. 20), had been hard pressed by the Carthaginians, called for aid upon Pyrrhus, who gladly gave heed to the request, but left a garrison in Tarentum. Offensive and defensive alliance of Rome and Carthage (279); a Carthaginian fleet appeared off the coast of Italy, but soon returned to Sicily. The Roman's conduct of the war in Italy was at first feeble, owing to their great losses, but they soon captured all the cities on the south coast excepting Tarentum and Rhegium. After two years' absence (p. 20), Pyrrhus again landed in Italy. He started to assist the Samnites, who were hard pressed by the Romans, but was completely defeated in the

275. Battle of Beneventum.

1300 prisoners and 4 elephants fell into the hands of the victors. Despairing of success against Rome, Pyrrhus returned to Epirus, leaving a garrison in Tarentum. Not until after the death of Pyrrhus, which took place in 272 at Argos, did *Milon* surrender the city and fortress of Tarentum to the Romans, on condition of free departure. The Tarentines were obliged to deliver up their arms and ships, and destroy their walls, but retained their own municipal administration.

After the fall of Tarentum, subjugation of the *Lucanians*, Samnites, and Bruttians. All were compelled to cede portions of their territories and to receive colonies (see below). In 270 capture of Rhe-

gium, which had been for ten years in the hands of Campanian mutineers, who were now punished with death. In 268 the *Picentini* were defeated and a large number of them transferred to Campania. The subjugation of Italy to the *Rubicon* and *Macra* was completed by the defeat of the Sallentini in Calabria, 266. As regards the relation of the conquered towns to Rome we must distinguish:

I. Municipal cities (municipia), i. e. communities having Roman citizenship without suffrage and with no claim to a public office at Rome (sine suffragio et jure honorum). They had the burdens but not the privileges of Roman citizens. Some places were permitted to keep the administration of their municipal affairs under officials of their own choosing; in others the municipal constitution was entirely

abolished.

II. Colonies (coloniæ), i. e. Roman strongholds and fortresses. Many conquered towns had to cede a part of their land, which was then divided among poor Roman citizens, who retained all their rights of citizenship, and thenceforward formed the ruling class in the colonies, like the patricians, while the old population was reduced to inhabitants having no political rights. The Latin colonies are to be distinguished from the Roman colonies; the former owed their establishment to the Latin League, but had been further developed after its dissolution, in that the senate distributed lands among Latin or Roman citizens, who renounced their jus suffragii et honorum. In the municipalities, as in the colonies, the jurisdiction was in the hands of a prefect (præfectus iuri dicundo) appointed by the prætor urbanus (p. 101).

III. Allies (socii, civitates fæderatæ), whose relation to Rome was regulated by treaty, who had for the most part their own administration and jurisdiction, and were freed from service in the legion, but

were obliged to furnish auxiliary troops or ships.

THIRD PERIOD.

Punic Wars. From the Beginning of Rome's universal Empire, to the Destruction of Carthage and Corinth. (264-146).

264-241. First Punic War. Contest over Sicily.

For the earlier history of the *Punic* people (Carthaginians) see p. 16, etc.

Cause of the war: The ill-feeling which had long existed between Rome, the first land power, and Carthage, the first sea power, of the west, and which had only been waived for a moment during the attack of Pyrrhus, who represented the Hellenic states which were hostile to both powers (pp. 76 and 108). Since 311 the Romans had endeavored to form a fleet of war. About this time establishment at Rome of two commanders of the fleet (duumviri navales), later (267) of 4 quæstors of the fleet (quæstores classici).

Special cause: The Mamertines, i. e. men of Mars, formerly Campanian mercenaries in the pay of Agathocles (p. 20), had seized the city of Messana and put the male population to death. They were

besieged by king *Hiero II*. of Syracuse. Part of their number sought aid from the Carthaginians, another part from the Romans. The Roman senate hesitated; the assemblies resolved to grant the assistance asked (265). A Roman fleet, consisting principally of the ships of the south Italian allies, and the advance guard of the army, arrived in Rhegium. Meanwhile the Mamertines had admitted Carthaginian ships to the harbor and received a Carthaginian garrison in the citadel. The Roman advance guard crossed the strait, occupied Messana, and drove the garrison from the citadel. The Carthaginians declared war.

264. A Carthaginian fleet besieged the Romans in Messana. The consul Appius Claudius Caudex crossed the strait with the main body of the army and relieved Messana. Unsuccessful attempt to take Syracuse. The consul returned to Italy, leaving a garrison in Messana.

263. Two Roman armies crossed to Sicily. Victory of the consul M. Valerius Maximus, called Messalla, over the Carthaginians and Syracusans. Hiero, king of Syracuse, deserted the Carthaginians and joined the Romans, who advanced to the south

coast of Sicily.

262. Agrigentum captured by the Romans, after defeat of a Carthaginian army under Hanno, advancing to its relief. The Romans resolved to construct a large fleet. They built the first five-decker¹ (pentēre) after the model of a stranded Carthaginian ship.

260. First naval expedition of the Romans against Lipăra, with 17 ships, had an unfortunate end, the whole squadron with the consul Cn. Cornelius Scipio being captured by the Carthagin-

ians. Immediately afterwards, however,

260. First naval victory of the Romans under C. Duilius at Mylæ, west of Messana. Boarding bridges. Special honors paid to Duilius. Columna rostrata in the Forum. The war was continued in the following years with changing fortune; the Carthaginians under Hamilcar maintained themselves in the western portion of the island.

257. Drawn battle at sea, off the promontory of *Tyndaris*.

The Roman senate decided to attempt a landing in Africa. A fleet of 330 ships under the consuls M. Atilius Regulus and L. Manlius Volso sailed for the southern coast of Sicily, where, at the mouth of the Himera, the troops were taken on board. A Carthaginian fleet of 350 vessels attempted to stop the expedition, but in the great 256. Naval battle of Ecnomus (south coast of Sicily)

it was completely defeated. What was left of the Carthaginian fleet took up position before Carthage to protect the city. The Roman consuls landed to the east of the city at Clupea and laid waste the Carthaginian territory. Manlius returned to Italy with half the army; Regulus remained with 15,000 men. The Carthaginians being defeated sued for peace. Regulus demanded the cession of Sicily and Sardinia, surrender of prisoners and all vessels of war except one,

¹ Not the first ship of war; the Romans had long had vessels of war and three-deckers, see pp. 105, 107, 109.

and acknowledgment of Rome's supremacy. Stung by these insolent demands, the Carthaginians resolved upon most energetic preparations, and levied troops in Greece, whence numerous bands of mercenaries, and among them the Spartan Xanthippus, went to Africa. The Carthaginian army being thus greatly strengthened (the elephants numbered 100),

255. Regulus was defeated at Tunes

and captured. A part of the Roman army escaped to Clupea. The senate at once sent a fleet to Africa, which, after gaining a naval victory over the Carthaginians at the promontory of Hermes, took on board the Roman army, which was surrounded at Clupea; but on the return voyage three fourths of the ships were lost in a storm. The Carthaginians reopened the war in Sicily, landing in Lilybæum under Hasdrubal, son of Hanno. The Romans built a new fleet.

254. Capture of Panormus by the Romans. In the following year (253) the Roman fleet crossed to Africa and laid waste the coast. On the return voyage from Sicily to Italy it was almost annihilated by a storm. The Roman senate declined to continue the naval warfare. On land the Romans gained the

251. Victory of Panormus

over Hasdrubal under the consul Cæcilius Metellus, who at

his triumph in Rome exhibited over 100 elephants.

The story of the embassy of Regulus to Rome falls in the period subsequent to this victory. It is, like the story of the cruelties inflicted upon him by the Carthaginians, probably an invention of a later time. The Romans renewed the naval war. They besieged Lilybæum in vain. The consul P. Claudius Pulcher in the

249. Sea-fight at Drepanum

defeated by the Carthaginians. Capture of a great number of Roman ships. After two more Roman fleets had been destroyed by storms on the south coast of Sicily, the Romans, for the second time, abandoned naval warfare.

248-242. Campaign by land on the south side of Sicily. The Carthaginian general Hamilcar, called Barak or Barcas (i. e. lightning) not only defended himself for 6 years successfully against the Romans, first on Mt. Eircte (Monte Pellegrino, near Palermo), then on Eryx, but also annoyed the Italian coasts by privateers. Through the contributions of rich patriots at Rome, a new fleet was finally built entirely at private cost. With this fleet the consul C. Lutatius Catulus won the decisive

241. Victory at the Ægatian Islands

(opposite Lilybæum), over the Carthaginian fleet under Hanno. Peace: I. The Carthaginians gave up all claims to Sicily. II. They paid 3200 talents (\$4,000,000) war indemnity in ten years. The larger western part of Sicily became the first Roman province; the smaller eastern 1 part continued under the supremacy of Syracuse, which was allied with Rome.

¹ The territory of Syracuse, Acræ, Leontini, Megăra, Helorum, Netum, Tauromenium. Comp. Marquardt-Mommson, Röm. Alth., IV. 91.

of the constitution of the centuries, concerning the details of which but little is known with certainty. Only this is clear: that the right of first vote was taken from the centuries of equites and that henceforward the century which should cast the first vote (centuria prærogativa) was determined by lot. It is probable that the centuries from now on formed a subdivision of the wards (tribus). It is further probable that the number of centuries was increased; perhaps an equal number of centuries (i. e. voting bodies) was established for each class (p. 92), and in this manner the preponderance of the first class was abolished.

238. The Romans made use of an insurrection of the mercenaries and Libyan subjects against Carthage to extort from the Carthaginians the cession of Sardinia. This island was at a later time united with the island of Corsica (formerly Etruscan, afterwards conquered by the Romans) to form one province. For the present the Romans were satisfied with the occupation of the coasts.

229-228. War with the Illyrians of Scodra, brought about by the piracies and acts of violence committed by these tribes, and their refusal to make the reparation demanded by the senate. A Roman fleet of 200 ships soon brought the Illyrian pirates to terms, and compelled the queen Teuta, the guardian of her son, to accept the following conditions: release of all Grecian cities from her sway, abandonment of piracy, limitation of navigation, and payment of a tribute. The Greeks attested their gratitude to the senate by admitting all Romans to the Isthmian games and the Eleusinian mysteries (p. 44). The lasting result of the war was the firm establishment of Roman superiority in the Adriatic Sea and supremacy over Corcyra, Apollonia, Epidamnus, and some neighboring tribes. In 219 the renewal of the war led to the subjugation of a part of Illyria by L. Emilius Paullus.

225–222. Subjugation of Cisalpine Gaul

brought about by a dangerous invasion of the Gallic tribes inhabiting the plains of the Po (except the Cenomani) joined by numerous bands of transalpine Gauls. The Celts entered Etruria 70,000 strong and advanced upon Rome. The Romans sent two consular armies against them, which were reinforced by a third. Surrounded by these forces the Gauls were defeated and annihilated in the

225. Battle of Telamon,

south of the mouth of the Umbro. The consul C. Atilius Regulus fell, 10,000 Gauls and one of their military leaders were captured, nearly all the rest fell or killed themselves. The Romans entered Gallia Cispadana, and the inhabitants, the Boii, submitted. The Romans crossed the Po, with severe losses (223), and defeated the Insubres. After two more victories in the following year (222) the consul Cn. Scipio captured Mediolanum, the capital of the Insubres, and Comum. To strengthen their power the Romans founded the fortresses of Placentia, Cremona, and Mutina. The military

¹ Becker, Röm. Alterth. II.8, p. 9, foll.

road to Spoletium was extended across the Apennines to the Adriatic Sea, and along the coast to Ariminum (Via Flaminia). Further measures for the firmer establishment of their power in Cisalpine Gaul were interrupted by the

Second Punic War.1 218-201.

Causes: Envy of the Romans, excited by the new prosperity of Carthage, springing from her recent acquisitions in Spain, and the

efforts of the party of the Barcæ to take revenge on Rome.

Special causes: The conquests of Hamilton Barcas in southern and western Spain (236-228) being successfully pursued after his death by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, the Romans concluded a treaty with the Grecian cities Zacynthus or Saguntum, north of Valencia, and Emporiæ, now Ampurias, at the foot of the Pyrenees, and compelled the Carthaginians to promise to neither attack these cities nor cross the Ebro with the purpose of making further conquests. After the murder of Hasdrubal (221) the army chose the son of Hamiltan Barcas, Hannibal, then 28 years old, for their general. In order to make war unavoidable even against the will of the Carthaginian government, Hannibal conquered and destroyed Saguntum (219) after a brave resistance of the inhabitants for eight months. A refusal to deliver up Hannibal as demanded by a Roman embassy in Carthage was followed by a declaration of war on the part of the Romans.

The plan of the Romans to land their main army in Africa, while a second army should engage the Carthaginian troops in Spain, was thwarted by

Hannibal's daring expedition to Italy

by land.² Leaving a sufficient number of troops in Spain, Hannibal crossed the Pyrenees with 50,000 foot, 9000 horse, and 37 elephants, traversed Gaul not far from the coast by way of Narbo (Narbonne) and Nemausus (Nîmes). The Roman consul P. Cornelius Scipio, who had stopped at Massilia on the voyage to Spain, heard of Hannibal's march, but his attempt to prevent the Carthaginians from crossing the Rhodanus (Rhône) with a division of his army came too late; the Carthaginian army had already passed the river above Avenio (Avignon). Cavalry skirmish. The Roman consul sent his brother Cn. Scipio with the main part of the army to Spain, while he himself returned with a small force to northern Italy (Pisæ). Hannibal marched up the Rhône to Vienna, then turned eastward through the territory of the Allobroges and Centrones, where he forced a way with great loss, crossed the Alps, still fighting, by the pass of the Little St. Bernard, and after indescribable exertions and severe losses reached the valley of the Dora Baltea with about 26,000 men and a few elephants. In upper Italy a small Roman army was engaged with the revolted Gauls. Hannibal defeated the consul Scipio, who had gone on before with the cavalry and lightarmed foot soldiers, in the

¹ Also called the Hannibalic War (Bellum Hannibalicum).

² See Kiepert, Atlas Ant. Tab. VII. and X. The topographical questions have been settled by the Englishmen Wickham and Cramer.

218. Cavalry engagement on the Ticinus, a northern branch of Sept. the Po. The wounded consul was rescued by his seventeenyears-old son, the future "Africanus." Reinforced by the Gauls, Hannibal defeated in the

218. Battle of the Trebia, a southern branch of the Po, the other consul, Tib. Sempronius Longus, who had been hastily recalled from Sicily before the commencement of his African expedition, and now commanded the united Roman armies; the remnant of the Roman force threw itself into the fortresses Placentia and Cremona.

In northern Italy Hannibal organized the national insurrection of the Cisalpine Gauls; over 60,000 joined his army. In Rome two new consular armies were placed in the field for the next campaign. One under Cn. Servilius was to pursue the Via Flaminia toward Ariminum in Umbria, the other the Via Cassia toward Arretium in Etruria, to meet a possible attack by the Carthaginians. After Hannibal had released without ransom all prisoners belonging to the Roman allies, and by their influence had incited all Italy to desert Rome, he crossed the Apennines, and marched, unexpectedly to the Romans, through the swampy regions about the Arno. Severe losses. Hannibal himself lost an eye. By this march he flanked the Roman defensive position. The consul Flaminius followed him in all haste, and allowed himself to be decoyed by Hannibal into a narrow pass. In the

217. Battle of Lake Trasimene, between Cortona and Perusia, the Roman army was partly slaughtered, partly made prisoner (in all 30,000 men). Terror at Rome. Preparations for the defence of the city, destruction of the bridges over the Tiber. pointment of Q. Fabius Maximus as dictator. Hannibal, however, did not march upon Rome, but passed the fortress of Spoletium after an unsuccessful attempt to surprise it, traversed Umbria across the Apennines to Picenum and the Adriatic Sea. There he rested his army, reorganized it after the Italian system, and established communication with Carthage by sea. Then he advanced southward. His hope that the Sabellian tribes would join him was not fulfilled; most of the cities closed their gates upon him.

After the dictator Q. Fabius Maximus had united his new legions with the army of Ariminum, he followed, at a discreet distance, the Carthaginian army, which went through Samnium to Apulia, and passed by Luceria to Arpi. Fabius avoided a pitched battle (hence his nickname Cunctator, delayer), but tried successfully to weaken Hannibal crossed the Carthaginian army by numerous skirmishes. the Apennines again, and went through Samnium to Capua, which he tried in vain to seduce from Rome. The dictator followed and obstructed the Carthaginian march on the Volturnus, where Hannibal gained the pass by a stratagem only (Livius, XXII. 16). After he had severely harried the Sabellian tribes, Hannibal returned to Apulia.

Meantime the military conduct of Fabius Maximus had so displeased the Roman populace that they entrusted one half the army to the independent command of M. Minucius, master of the horse, who had a fortunate skirmish with the Carthaginians, as a second dictator. The new dictator attacked Hannibal, but was defeated, and only saved from complete annihilation by the first dictator, Fabius Maximus.

The consuls for 216 were the veteran general L. Æmilius Paullus, elected by the optimates, and the incompetent C. Terentius Varro, elected by the popular party for the purpose of taking the offensive against Hannibal with an army of 86,000 Romans and allies. On the day when he had the decisive vote in the council of war, Varro imprudently attacked the Carthaginians, who held an advantageous position. The Romans suffered in the

216. Battle of Cannæ (in Apulia, on the Aufidus), the most terrible defeat they ever experienced; 70,000 fell (among them more than eighty men of senatorial rank and the consul L. Æmilius Paullus); the rest were captured or dispersed. Varro, with a small

troop, escaped to Canusium.

In the same year the legion which had been sent to Cisalpine Gaul was almost entirely destroyed. The secession of Capua, the Samnites, Lucanians, and many cities of lower Italy from the Roman alliance was the immediate consequence of the battle of Cannæ.

Admirable conduct of the Roman senate. The time of mourning for the families of the fallen was limited to thirty days. Hannibal's ambassadors, who offered to exchange prisoners, were refused entrance to the city. A new army was formed by a levy of the youngest men and all who could bear arms, even slaves; they were armed in part out of the ancient spoils from the temples. M. Claudius Marcellus, who had approved himself in the Gallic war, was placed in command of the new army, which joined the remnants of the army of Cannæ. A second army was conducted by the dictator M. Junius. The Romans successfully defended Naples, Cumæ, and Nola.

Carthage formed an alliance with Philip V. (III.) of Macedonia, and Hieronymus, the grandson and successor of Hiero, of Syracuse.

Hannibal went into winter quarters at Capua.

215. The fortune of war turned in favor of the Romans. Q. Fabius Maximus, Tib. Sempronius Gracchus, the consuls, and M. Claudius Marcellus, pro-consul, led three Roman armies. In the

215. Battle of Nola,

Marcellus defeated Hannibal, who retired to Apulia. Hannibal was obliged to assume the defensive, since, with the exception of 4000 men, he received no support from Carthage. The dispatch of reinforcements from Spain was prevented by the successful

218–212. War of the Romans against the Carthaginians in Spain.

The Romans, under M. Scipio and Cn. Scipio, defeated Hasdrubal, Hannibal's brother, on the Iberus (Ebro), crossed this river, and penetrated the Carthaginian territory as far as the Bætis (Guadalquivir). There they defeated the Carthaginians in two encounters at Illiturgi

¹ Established by an inscription found in 1862. See Mommson, Röm. Gesch., I.6, p. 599, note.

and *Intibili*, and maintained themselves in southern Spain, until 212, in spite of varying fortune. At the same time they were pressing the Carthaginians in Africa through their ally, *Syphax*, king of western Numidia. The alliance with Philip of Macedon likewise brought no help to Hannibal. The

215-206. First Macedonian war

was successfully conducted by the Romans with scanty forces. The irresolute *Philip* did not dare to fulfil his promise to Hannibal of landing in Italy. In 212 the Romans brought about a league of *Grecian states* against Philip, under the lead of the Ætolians, which was joined by Illyrian and Thracian chiefs, and even by King *Attalus* of Pergamus. The war was, on the whole, unfavorable to Philip. In 206 peace was concluded between Philip and the Romans, against the wishes of the latter; but it was, nevertheless, accepted by the senate.

The alliance with Syracuse proved also of no use to Hannibal, as

the

214-212. War in Sicily (Siege of Syracuse) was decided by Marcellus in favor of the Romans. After the destruction of the Carthaginian army of relief under *Hamilcar*, by defeat and disease in the swampy lowlands of the *Anapus*,

212. Syracuse was captured and plundered, in spite of a brave resistance (Archimedes).

In Italy Hannibal gained possession of Tarentum through treachery (212), and laid siege to the citadel of that city by land and sea. Death of Tib. Sempronius Gracchus in Samnium. Hannibal advanced to Campania and compelled the Romans to raise the siege of Capua, after which he defeated two Roman armies in Lucania and Apulia, but retired to Tarentum. The Romans again laid siege to Capua.

In Spain the war took an unfavorable turn for Rome in this same year, 212. Both Scipios were defeated and killed by the Carthaginians and their ally, *Massinissa*, son of the king of eastern Numidia (king himself in 208). The Romans were driven back over the

Ebro.

211. Hannibal attacked the Roman army before Capua. He was repulsed, and in order to force the Romans to raise the siege he marched through Samnium to the territory of the Æqui on the later Via Valeria, past Tibur, across the Anio, directly upon Rome, and encamped a mile from the city (Hannibal ante portas!). Finding the Romans prepared for defence, he retired, after ravaging the neighborhood, to lower Italy, without having gained his end.

211. Capua surrendered to the Romans,

who visited a terrible punishment upon the city. Fifty-three citizens were beheaded, many sold into slavery; the community was deprived of the right of self-government. Hannibal's attack on Rhegium and on the citadel of Tarentum having miscarried, his Italian allies abandoned him, and tried to make their peace with the Romans.

210. P. Cornelius Scipio, son and nephew of the brothers who fell in Spain, and now 25 years old, was sent to Spain with proconsular newscar (Livius XXVI 18)

sular powers (Livius, XXVI. 18).

In Italy Hannibal gained a victory over the proconsul Cn. Fulvius at Herdonea. In Sicily the Romans captured Agrigentum, slaughtering the Carthaginian garrison and selling the populace as slaves, and reduced the whole island under their power. In Spain Scipio

crossed the Ebro (209) and conquered New Carthage.

209. M. Marcellus, having been defeated in an encounter with Hannibal, gained a victory over him in a second battle on the following day. Q. Fabius Maximus captured Tarentum; 30,000 Tarentines were sold as slaves. Hannibal retired to Metapontum.

208. Marcellus fell in a cavalry skirmish at Venusia. Great exhaustion of Rome and its allies in consequence of the war in

its own country, now in its tenth year.

In Spain Scipio (208) pressed victoriously southward, but fought a drawn battle at *Bæcula* with *Hasdrubal*, and was unable to prevent him from crossing the Pyrenees on his way to his brother Hannibal.

Arrived in upper Italy (207), Hasdrubal was successful in inciting the Cisalpine Gauls to arms. Great preparations in Rome (23 legions) to prevent his union with Hannibal, who was advancing to meet him through Lucania and Apulia. The consul M. Livius Salinator was sent against Hasdrubal, the consul C. Claudius Nero against Hannibal. Drawn battle at Grumentum in Lucania, between Nero and Hannibal; the latter broke through the enemy, marched to Apulia, and encamped by Canusium. Nero, who had followed him, left a part of the army to watch Hannibal, while with the rest he joined his colleague by means of forced marches. The two consuls defeated Hasdrubal in the bloody

207. Battle of Sena gallica, not far from the river Metaurus. Death of Hasdrubal. On receipt of the news of this defeat (the Romans threw the head of Hasdrubal among the Carthaginian pickets), Hannibal retired to Bruttium. In Spain victory of Scipio at Bæcula over Hasdrubal, son of Gisgo.

206. After completing the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Spain by the capture of Gades (Cadiz), and after concluding a secret alliance with Massinissa, P. Cornelius Scipio returned to Rome.

For the following year

205. Scipio was elected consul, and made preparations in Sicily for an African expedition. Mago, the youngest brother of Hannibal, landed at Genoa with the remnants of the Spanish army of the Carthaginians, and called the Ligurians to arms. At once, the Romans levied three armies against him.

204. Scipio landed in Africa. Massinissa, who had been driven from his throne by the Carthaginians, and by Syphax, husband of Hasdrubal's daughter Sophronisbe, now their ally, joined

Scipio.

203. Scipio defeated Hasdrubal, son of Gisgo, and Syphax by a night attack, and threatened Carthage. Unsuccessful negotiations for peace. The Carthaginians recalled Hannibal and Mago from Italy. The latter died on the passage. Hannibal embarked at Croton, having previously massacred the Italian soldiers who refused to accompany him. After fruitless personal negotiations between Scipio and Hannibal the

202. Decisive battle of Zama

was fought, wherein the Carthaginian army was defeated and

annihilated. Hannibal escaped to Hadrumetum.

201. Scipio granted the Carthaginians peace on the following conditions: 1. Surrender of their Spanish possessions and of all Mediterranean islands still under their control. 2. Transfer of the kingdom of Syphax to Massinissa. 3. Payment of a yearly tribute of 200 talents (\$250,000) for fifty years. 4. Surrender and destruction of all ships of war except ten. 5. No war to be undertaken without the permission of Rome. P. Cornelius Scipio, who received the cognomen of Africanus, celebrated his triumph in Rome with a splendor never before witnessed (Syphax).

The Italian allies of Hannibal were in part sentenced to cede large portions of their territory, in part reduced to subjects of Rome, deprived of their independence and their right to bear arms (peregrini dediticii). Foundation of numerous Roman colonies in Lower Italy.

In consequence of another general rising of the Cisalpine Gauls and

the Ligurians,

200-191. Upper Italy was again subjugated after a severe struggle. Although the peoples of Transpadane Gaul retained their tribal constitutions they soon became, with few exceptions, completely Latinized. This took place still more quickly among the Cispadane Gauls after the leading tribe, the Boii, had been almost exterminated in war. Numerous colonies were in part founded, in part reorganized. Via Æmilia from Ariminum to Placentia.

Spain was regarded as a Roman province after 205. It was divided into: 1. Hispania citerior, later Tarraconensis; and 2. Hispania ulterior, or Bætica and Lusitania. The country was, however, during this period, and a part of the next, commonly in a state of war. In 195 the consul, M. Porcius Cato, gained a great victory over the Spaniards, and decreed a universal disarmament. The insurrections soon began again. A victory of the prætor L. Æmilius Paullus (189), and another, still more important, gained by the prætor, C. Calpurnius, over the Lusitanians (185), induced quiet for a time in Hispania ulterior. The victories of Q. Fulvius Flaccus (181) and Tiberius Gracchus (179–178) partially subdued the Celtiberians of Hispania citerior.

200-197. Second Macedonian War.

Cause: A Macedonian force of mercenaries sent, as the senate maintained, by king Philip, had fought at Zama against the Romans. King Attalus of Pergamus, the inhabitants of Rhodes and Athens besought assistance from the Romans against King Philip V. (III.) of Macedonia, who, in alliance with Antiochus III. was warring with Egypt and also grievously troubling the supplicants.

In the autumn of 200 the Romans landed at Apollonia, in Illyria, under P. Sulpicius Galba. The Roman fleet guarded Piræus and threatened Eubœa. Philip was repulsed before Athens, and driven from Central Greece. The Romans, who were joined in 199 by the Ætolians and afterwards by the Achæans, carried on the war with varying fortune, but without result, until (198) the consul, T. Quinc-

tius Flamininus, took command of the army. He subdued Epirus, got into the rear of Philip's strong position, and defeated the king in the

197. Battle of Cynoscephalæ (Κυιὸς κεφαλαί, in Thessaly).

Peace: Philip was obliged to give up the hegemony of Greece, and in general all possessions outside of Macedonia proper, and to pay 1000 talents (\$1,250,000) in ten years. He was to maintain no more than 5000 soldiers and five ships of war, and not to carry on war beyond his own borders without the consent of Rome. During the Isthmian games, T. Quinctius Flamininus proclaimed, under general rejoicing, the decree of the Roman senate declaring the Greek states free and independent. The majority joined the Achæan league. The Romans limited, without destroying, the power of Nabis, tyrant of Sparta, hoping thus to counterbalance the Achæan league.

195. At Carthage a democratic reform of the constitution was carried out by the influence of Hannibal. The oligarchs defamed Hannibal before the Roman senate, which demanded that he be

delivered to the Romans. Hannibal fled to the East.

192-189. War with Antiochus III., of Syria.

Cause: Interference of the king of Syria in Grecian affairs, and of the Romans in Asiatic politics; reception of Hannibal at the court of Antiochus.

Antiochus, deceived by the Ætolians who had fallen out with Rome, and promised to join him with all the Greek cantons as allies, began the war, without listening to the advice of Hannibal, by landing in Thessaly on the Gulf of Pagasæ, whence he went to Eubœa. Most of the Greeks, especially the Achæan league, remained true to the Romans, who were also joined by Philip of Macedon, Eumenes of Pergamus, and Rhodes. Antiochus occupied the pass of Thermopylæ. Landing of the consul, Manius Acilius Glabrio, in Epirus (191) and march to Thessaly. The former consul, M. Porcius Cato, conqueror of the Spaniards, who served as military tribune in the Roman army, surprised the Ætolians on the mountain path of Ephialtes, while the consul captured the pass itself and scattered the army of Antiochus, who escaped to Chalcis with a few soldiers, and there took ship for The Romans besieged the Ætolians in Naupactus; their fleet, under C. Livius, defeated that of Antiochus at Chios. In the following year (190) a fleet from Rhodes defeated a fleet of the king, under the command of Hannibal, at the mouth of the Eurymedon, and somewhat later the Roman fleet, with that of Rhodes, won a naval victory at Myonnesus.

A Roman army, nominally under the command of the consul, L. Cornelius Scipio, but really under his brother, P. Cornelius Scipio Africanus, marched through *Macedonia* and *Thrace*, crossed the Hellespont, and defeated Antiochus in the

190. Battle of Magnesia on the Sipylus, not far from Smyrna, whereupon the king concluded peace in

the following year: 1. Surrender of all European possessions, and of his Asiatic possessions as far as the Taurus. 2. Payment of 15,000 Eubœan talents (\$19,125,000) within twelve years. 3. Surrender of Hannibal, who, however, escaped. This peace struck the kingdom of the Seleucidæ from the list of great powers. The Roman senate having resolved, for the present, not to acquire any immediate possessions in Asia, divided the ceded territory among its allies, Eumenes of Pergamus, and Rhodes, and proclaimed itself the protector of the Greek cities of Asia against the Galatians (189, Expedition of Cn. Manlius Volso), and regulator of the political relations of Asia. In Greece the Ætolians were conquered and subjugated, the other cantons retained, for the present, their independence. Internecine quarrels continued among the Greeks, and the Roman senate was in all cases appealed to as arbitrator. Philip of Macedonia received but scanty remuneration for his services in the war against Syria.

183 (?). Death of Hannibal. He poisoned himself at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, by whom he saw himself betrayed. Death of his conqueror, P. Cornelius Scipio Africanus, at Linternum, whither he had retired after he and his brother, Lucius, had been accused by M. Porcius Cato of having been bribed by Antiochus.

180. The lex annalis of the tribune, L. Villius, established, besides a military service of ten years, a fixed age for all the curule offices: ædiles, 37 years; prætor, 40; consul, 43. Since the first Punic war the expenses of the great games were no longer borne by the public treasury, but by the ædiles, which at once closed the office to all who were not men of property. The higher offices of state, and the position of senator, became more and more decidedly privileges of the nobility (p. 102).

171-168. Third Macedonian war. Destruction of the Macedonian monarchy.

Cause: The plan of Philip V. (III.), to revenge himself on the Romans, and to regain the old borders of Macedonia, was carried forward by his son and successor, Perseus, the murderer of his brother Demetrius, who favored Rome. King Eumenes of Pergamus informed the senate of the preparations of Perseus.

During the first three campaigns, weak and unsuccessful conduct on the part of the Roman generals, combined with injustice and cruelty against the allied Achæans and Epirotes, who were thereby forced to actual desertion. At last L. Æmilius Paullus, son of the consul who fell at Cannæ (p. 115), obtained the chief command. He restored discipline in the Roman army, drove back the Macedonians, and defeated Perseus in the

168 Battle of Pydna.

Sept. 11,000 Macedonians were captured, 20,000 perished. Perseus fell into the power of the Romans (in Samothrace). Splendid triumph of Æmilius Paullus. The spoils brought to Rome were so immense that henceforward the citizens were relieved from the *tributum*.

Dissolution of the kingdom of Macedonia, which was transformed into 4 confederacies dependent upon Rome, neither the right of emi-

gration nor of intermarriage (commercium et connubium) being allowed Genthius, king of Illyria, who had been an ally of Perseus, being soon conquered (168), that country was divided into 3 tributary districts with federal constitutions. Epirus was cruelly punished, 70 towns being plundered and destroyed, 150,000 Epirotes sold as slaves. The Greek cantons, friend and foe alike, were reduced to the condition of subject clients. 1000 Achæans of high standing, among whom was the historian Polybius, were carried to Rome for examination (167), and detained without trial 16 years in Italian cities under surveillance. The old allies of the Romans, Eumenes of Pergamus and **Rhodes**, who had attempted to hold the position of mediators during the war, were chastised and all the possessions of the latter on the mainland taken away. In a war which broke out between Syria and Egypt the senate interfered as guardian of both powers. man ambassador, C. Popillius Lænas, arrogantly and insultingly ordered Antiochus IV., king of Syria, to retire from before Alexandria. He drew a line around the king with his staff, and bade him decide before he stepped from the circle. (Polybius, xxix. 27.)

Third Punic War. 149-146.

Cause: The Carthaginians, whose commerce and maritime power had begun to increase, having been unable to procure from Rome any reparation for several losses of territory which they had sustained at the hands of Massinissa, finally took up arms themselves. The Roman senate, on the instigation of M. Porcius Cato ("Ceterum censero Carthaginem esse delendam") declared this a breach of the peace.

Two Roman armies landed at *Utica*. Humble submission of the Carthaginians, who at the command of the consul delivered up their war-ships and weapons. But when ordered to abandon their city and make a new settlement ten miles from the sea, the Carthaginians resolved on a desperate resistance. With the greatest sacrifices on the part of all the inhabitants of Carthage, without regard to rank, age or sex, new equipments were provided. Weapons were manufactured day and night. A new fleet was built in the inner harbor. An attack of the Romans was repulsed. Siege of Carthage.

P. Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus (son of Æmilius Paullus, adopted son of P. Cornelius Scipio Africanus (Major), assumed the command. He shut off the city completely on both the

land and sea side.

146. Capture and destruction of Carthage.

Street fight lasting six days, and a conflagration which lasted

seventeen days.

The remaining inhabitants were sold into slavery. The coast land from the river Tusca, opposite the island of Galatha (Galita), to Thenæ, on the Syrtis minor, was made a Roman province under the name Africa, with the capital at Utica. The rest of the country fell for the present to the allied kingdom of Numidia. Splendid triamph of Scipio, who received the name of Africanus (Minor).

148-146. Fourth Macedonian War,

against Andriscus, who gave himself out as Philippus, brother of Perseus (Pseudo-Philippus), and incited the Macedonians to rise against the Roman rule. He was defeated in two battles and captured by Q. Cacilius Metellus. Macedonia became a Roman province (146).

146. Achæan War.

Cause: Return of 300 Achæans from Italy, after an imprisonment of 16 years (p. 121). The anti-Roman party was thereby strengthened in all cities. Incited by *Critolaus* and *Diœus*, the Achæan league began war with *Sparta*, with whom the Romans took sides. The senate pronounced the dissolution of the League.

Victory of *Metellus* over *Critolaus* at *Scarphea* in Locris. *Diœus* summoned all who could bear arms together on the Isthmus, and armed 12,000 slaves. He was defeated by the consul **L. Mummius**

in the

146. Battle of Leucopetra.

Corinth, the chief city of the Achæan league, was occupied by *Mummius* without a blow. The art treasures were sent to Rome, and the inhabitants were sold as slaves. The territory of the city was in part given to *Sicyon*, in part transformed into Roman public land.

Corinth destroyed at the command of the senate.

The other Greek cities were, for the most part, mildly treated, and allowed to retain their autonomy (their own administration and jurisdiction), but in such a way that they were subordinated to the governor of Macedonia and had to pay tribute to Rome. Not until later (p. 80), it seems, did Greece become a Roman province with the name Achaia.

At the close of this epoch Rome possessed eight provinces: 1. Sicilia (241). 2. Sardinia (238), with Corsica. 3. Hispania citerior (205). 4. Hispania ulterior (205). 5. Gallia Cisalpina (191?), 6. Illyricum (168). 7. Africa (140). 8. Macedonia (146), and Greece

(Achaia).

The first four provinces were at first governed by prætors, so that, counting the prætor urbanus and the prætor inter cives et peregrinos (p. 101) who always stayed in Rome, there were six prætors elected every year. Later, however, it was decreed that all six (after Sulla, 8) prætors should remain in Rome during their year of office, 4 (6) to preside over the standing courts (quæstiones perpetuæ). Of these the first, for cases of extortion (de repetundis), was established in 149 by the lex Calpurnia; to this were added down to the time of Sulla (p. 132) courts having jurisdiction over fraud in obtaining office (de ambitu), over high treason (de maiestate), over embezzlement (de peculatu). Sulla created courts for the trial of cases of murder and poisoning (de sicariis et veneficiis) of forgery of wills and of counterfeiting (de falso).

For the year succeeding their year of office the prætors went as pro-prætors to the provinces which had fallen to them by lot. The proprætors received, as a rule, however, only those provinces

which were considered quiet, and which could be administered without any considerable military force. Those which were still the scene of warfare were assigned to one of the consuls in office, or to a proconsul, the consul of the preceding year having his term of command prolonged for the prosecution of the war (imperium prorogare) or an ex-consul (vir consularis) or an ex-prætor (vir prætorius) being appointed proconsul. Thus the provinces were at a later period distinguished into proconsular and proprætorial.

The organization of a province was commonly entrusted to the general who had conquered it, and a commission of ten senators. Many cities in the provinces retained their own jurisdiction and municipal government (civitates liberæ), in consequence of a treaty concluded with the Roman people (fædus, hence civitates fæderatæ), or of a law (lex) or decree of the senate (senatus consultum). The taxes of the provinces were generally let to tax-farmers (publicani), mostly Roman citizens of the equestrian order (ordo equester) many of whom

also did business in the provinces as bankers (negotiatores).1

In 153 the term of service for the consulate began in January for the first time, and this soon became the rule. Especially noteworthy in this epoch is the practical disappearance of the dictatorship. The last dictator with military power was appointed after the battle of Cannæ (216), and the last nominated for municipal business was in 202. After this, in times of peculiar danger, the senate conferred dictatorial power on the consuls, by the formula: "The consuls shall take measures for the public good according to their discretion." (Videant consules ne quid detrimenti respublica capiat), which somewhat resembles a modern proclamation of martial law or state of siege.

FOURTH PERIOD.

Firm Establishment of the Universal Power of Rome. Period of the Civil Wars (146-31).

143-133. Numantine War.

Continuance of hostilities in Spain. War in Lusitania against Viriathus, 147-139, ended only by the latter's murder. The war in northern Spain centred around the fortified city of Numantia, which was vainly besieged by Metellus, and then by several incapable generals, who utterly neglected the discipline of the army. Finally P. Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus Africanus (Minor) received the command. He restored discipline, and, after an investment of fifteen months' duration, starved the city into submission. Desperate defence.

133. Surrender and destruction of Numantia.

Scipio Æmilianus received the surname of *Numanticus*. After the fall of Numantia all Spain, excepting the mountain tribes of the north, was reduced under Roman government.

135–132. First servile war.

Insurrection of the slaves in Sicily, who were terribly ill-treated, under the Syrian Eunus, who called himself king Antiochus,

Marquardt-Mommsen, Rom. Alt. IV. 338 foll. and 377 foll.
The present Garray, an hour's walk north of Soria on the Duero.

and fought a long time successfully against the Roman armies, maintaining himself in *Henna* and *Tauromenium*, but was finally captured and executed, together with a great number of the insurgents.

133-121. Civil disturbances under the Gracchi,

excited by the political and social reforms urged through revolutionary means by the brothers Tiberius Gracchus and Caius Gracchus.

Constant increase in the number of great estates worked by slaves (Latifundia). The number of slaves in Italy was immensely increased by the successful wars, and by a most extensive slave trade, especially with eastern Asia. The order of free peasants and renters was thereby greatly reduced, while there was formed in the capital a numerous rabble without property or occupation, who lived on bribes and gifts of grain. Bad government of the optimates (p. 101). Family cliques which took exclusive possession of all public offices and

places in the senate.

Tib. Sempronius Gracchus (163-133), son of the plebeian consul of the same name (through his mother, Cornelia, grandson of the victor of Zama, p. 118), when tribune of the people proposed the reënactment of the Licinian agrarian law (p. 101) which had long been forgotten, with this alteration, that besides the 500 jugera, 250 jugera of public land should be allowed for every two sons, and that damages should be paid for all buildings erected on land which had to be given up. Opposition of the tribune M. Octavius, who had been gained over by the senate, and whom Tib. Gracchus caused to be deposed by an unconstitutional popular decree. The agrarian law was accepted by the people; its execution was entrusted to Tib. Gracchus, his father-in-law Appius Claudius, and his brother C. Gracchus.

133. Death of Attalus III., king of Pergamus, who left his kingdom and his treasures to the Romans.

Tib. Gracchus proposed in the *popular assembly*, contrary to the common usage, according to which the *senate* had the disposal of this inheritance, to divide the treasures of Pergamus among the new landowners, in order that they might procure the necessary equipment.

Preparation of further popular laws of political tendency; shortening of the time of military service; extension of the right of appeal,

etc.

Tib. Gracchus tried, contrary to the constitution, to secure the election to the tribunate for the following year. The election was forcibly stopped by the senate. Tib. Gracchus and 300 of his followers were killed by the optimates, armed with clubs and chair-legs, and led by the consul, P. Scipio Nasica.

129. After the defeat of Aristonicus, a pretender to the throne of the Attalidæ, by Perperna, Pergamus became a Roman prov-

ince under the name of Asia.

133-129. The division of the public lands was partially carried out as decreed. The struggle between the democracy and the optimates continued. The leader of the latter party, P. Scipio Emilianus, husband of Sempronia, the sister of the Gracchi,

who had successfully opposed the proposals of the democratic

129. tribune, C. Carbo, found dead in his bed (murdered?).

cessfully proposed to give the right of citizenship to all Italians, was sent by the senate, which wished him out of the way, to assist the Massiliotes against the Gauls, by whom they were hard pressed. He laid the foundation of Roman supremacy in Transalpine Gaul. The immediate purpose of this occupation was the establishment of communication by land, between Italy and Spain. In 123 the proconsul, Sextius, founded the colony of Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix). Gallia Narbonnensis, so called after the colony Narbo Martius founded in 118, a Roman province. In 123 the Balearic Islands were subjected to Rome.

123. Caius Sempronius Gracchus, for two years quæstor in Sardinia, returned to Rome against the will of the senate, and was elected tribune of the people.

Surpassing his brother in talent, force of character, and passionate energy, C. Gracchus not only took up again the latter's social reforms, but also brought forward, one after another, a series of proposals looking to a revolutionary alteration of the constitution. Had they been completely adopted, these innovations would perchance have substituted for the existing aristocratic republican government the rule of one man under the form of a democracy. Whether C. Gracchus desired such a power for himself is, however, very doubtful. By the regular distribution of grain, at the expense of the state, C. Gracchus attempted to make the proletarii of the capital his willing tool in coercing the comitæ. He was able to secure in 122 his election to the tribunate for the second time.

The lex judiciaria transferred the jury-duty from the order of senators to that of the equites, and made the preëxisting separation between these two parts of the Roman aristocracy still more

abrupt.

The designation, "ordo equester," which belonged originally to those citizens only who actually did cavalry service, had been gradually extended to all who, in consequence of having property to the amount of at least 400,000 sesterces, were liable to such service. Since 129 the senators were obliged, according to law, on entering the senate, to leave the centuries of equites. Hence "equites" denoted especially the members of the aristocracy of wealth, who were not members of the senate; yet the young men of senatorial families continued to serve regularly in the centuries of equites.

Encroachments of C. Gracchus on the administrative privileges of the senate by means of resolves of the popular assembly. The lex provocatio reënacted. Colonies sent out by decrees of the people instead of by decrees of the senate. C. Gracchus himself established

the colony of Junonia on the site of Carthage.

The absence of the all-powerful tribune from Rome was utilized by the senate, to secure him a dangerous opponent in the person of the tribune, *M. Livius Drusus*. The proposals of this tribune, in the interests of the lower classes, were constantly approved by the senate, with the view of undermining the popularity of Gracchus.

- 122. The motion of C. Gracchus and his colleague, M. Fulvius Flaccus, to grant the Latins all the rights of citizenship, and the other Italians Latin rights, was defeated by the united opposition of the senate and the lower classes of the capital. C. Gracchus was not elected tribune for the following (third) year.
- one of the supporters of Gracchus. The democratic party occupied the Aventine, which, being poorly defended, was stormed by the optimates. C. Gracchus and M. Fulvius were slain, along with several hundred of their supporters. Of the prisoners about 3000 are said to have been strangled in prison. Restoration of the power of the senate, and the former condition of things. After M. Livius Drusus had removed the ground rent, and repealed the law prohibiting the alienation of assignments of public land, and thereby given the optimates opportunity to repurchase their confiscated lands, a decree of the people, 111, converted all public lands in possession of citizens into the private property (not subject to taxation) of those who had formerly enjoyed the usufruct.

111-105.2 Jugurthine war.

Cause: Micipsa, Massinissa's eldest son, had decreed in his will that after his death his sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, should reign over Numidia in common with his nephew and adopted son, Jugurtha. Quarrels of the kings. Attempt to actually divide the kingdom. Jugurtha murdered Hiempsal and expelled Adherbal, who sought protection in Rome. A commission of the senate, which was bribed by Jugurtha, arranged a division of the kingdom entirely in Jugurtha's favor. The latter attacked Adherbal anew, defeated him, and besieged him in Cirta, his capital. Without heeding the intervention of the Roman senate, Jugurtha captured Cirta, and put to death Adherbal and the whole male population of the city, including many Italians. Indignation at Rome, and, finally, at the instance of the tribune, C. Memmius, declaration of war against Jugurtha.

Jugurtha bought from the consul, L. Calpurnius Bestia, a peace, which the senate, upon the motion of Memmius, refused to ratify. Invitation of the king to Rome. Jugurtha appeared in the city upon guarantee of safe conduct, and gained partisans for himself by his money. When, however, he connived at the murder of Massiva, a third grandson of Massinissa, in Rome itself, he was banished from the city, and the war was renewed.

110-109. The war was unsuccessfully conducted by the Romans. Jugurtha defeated a Roman army, sent it under the yoke, and dictated a peace which was repudiated by the senate.

109. Q. Metellus, entrusted with the command, defeated Jugurtha on the river Muthul. The Romans occupied Numidia with two armies, one under Metellus, the other commanded by his legate C. Marius (son of a day laborer from the vicinity of Arpinum).

¹ Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, III. 101-130.

² Concerning the chronology of this war, see Mommsen, III. p. 153, note.

107. After fruitless negotiations, another Roman victory. Jugurtha withdrew to the oases of the desert and induced the nomads of those parts (Gætulæ) to take up arms against the Romans. Pursued into the desert, he joined forces with his father-in-law, Bocchus, king of Mauritania.

107. Marius, in spite of the opposition of the aristocrats, received the consulate and chief command. He conquered the Gætulians, repulsed a combined attack of Jugurtha and Bocchus at Cirta, entered into secret negotiations with Bocchus through

106-105. his quæstor, L. Cornelius Sulla, and secured the delivery of Jugurtha into his hands. The captive king was led in triumph at Rome and died of hunger in prison. Numidia was divided between Bocchus and Gauda, the last living grandson of Massinissa.

113-101. War against the Cimbri and Teutones.

The Germanic, or, according to others, Celtic, tribe of the Cimbri (Chempho, i. e. warriors?) made their way from the

113. north into the Alpine regions, defeated at Noreia, in Corinthia, the consul Cn. Papirius Carbo, turned afterwards westward towards the Rhine, which they crossed, and defeated a Roman

109. army under M. Junius Silanus, who had hurried to the aid of the Allobroges. Helvetian bands pressed into Gaul, and

107. defeated the consul L. Cassius Longinus on the Garonne. The Cimbri traversed Gaul in various directions, defeated and annihilated two large Roman armies under Q. Servilius Capio and Cn. Mallius Maximus at Arausia (Orange) on the Rhône. Terror at Rome. Violent proceedings of the democratic leaders against the incapable generals of the optimates. Capio, Maximus, and others condemned.

104-100. Marius elected consul five times in succession.

The Cimbri meantime had crossed the Pyrenees and were wandering aimlessly about among the Spanish tribes. Defeated by the Celtiberians, they recrossed the Pyrenees, traversed western Gaul, and gave Marius time to reorganize the Roman forces in the Provincia Narbonensis (Provence). Defeated by the Belgians, the Cimbri united with the Germanic tribes of the Teutones and with Helvetian tribes (Tougenes and Tigorini). These three peoples resolved to enter Italy in two separate bands. The greater part of the Cimbri and the Tigorini were to invade Italy from the north, while the Teutones with the Ambrones, the best among the Cimbri, and the Tougenes were to force their way into Italy through southern Gaul (102). Marius attempted to intercept the latter band. By his position at the junction of the Isère and the Rhône, he covered the two military roads which at that time alone connected Gaul and Italy (Pass of the Little St. Bernard, and the shore road). Futile attempt of the barbarians to storm the Roman camp. They passed the camp on their way down the Rhône. Marius, following them, defeated and annihilated their army in the

102. Battle of Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix in Provence, see p. 125). The king of the Teutones, Teutobod, was captured. Thereupon

Marius crossed the Alps to the assistance of his colleague Catulus, whom the Cimbri, having reached Italy by way of the Brenner Pass, had discomfited upon the Adige and driven behind the Po. The two consuls, having joined forces, advanced across the Po and annihilated the Cimbri in the

101. Battle of Vercellæ (in campis Raudiis). Triumph of Marius, who was hailed by the multitude, "the third Romulus,"

"the second Camillus."

At the time of the Cimbrian war occurred the complete abolition of the Servian military organization, according to which military service was principally a tax on property, but which had already been several times altered. This had also long been the principle upon which the military service of the Italian allies was regulated. Hereafter the system of a citizen levy was supplemented by a recruiting system, principally of course from the idle and lazy portion of the population, and by a system of reinforcements, whereby cavalry and light-armed troops were drawn henceforward from the contingents of subject and vassal princes. A separate military order was formed, which was distinct from the civil order and opposed to it. The organization of the army, the strength and divisions of the legions (henceforward 6000 men in 10 cohorts), also underwent important changes.

103-99. Second servile insurrection (in Sicily) under Tryphon and Athenion, which was put down by the consul, Manius

Aquillius, after a hard struggle.

joined the leaders of the people, the prætor C. Servilius Glaucia and L. Appuleius Saturninus, with the purpose of overthrowing the constitution. Saturninus, having gained the tribunate by murder, procured by violent means a division of lands among the veterans of Marius. The consul Q. Metellus went into voluntary banishment. The murder of C. Memmius, who had been nominated consul for the year 99, led to an actual contest in the forum between the optimates and the popular party. Saturninus and Glaucia being betrayed by their accomplice, Marius, were killed, with many of their followers.

99. Q. Metellus recalled to Rome. Marius, hated by both parties on account of his equivocal conduct, went for a time to Asia.

91. Three bills brought forward by the tribune M. Livius Drusus:

1. Reform of the judicial department (lex judiciaria), which restored to the senate the places on the juries which had been taken from it, at the same time enlarging the senate by the addition of 300 equites. 2. A new division of lands (lex agraria). 3. Bestowal of the right of citizenship on the Italians (de civitate sociis danda). The first two proposals were adopted by the comitiæ, but declared null and void by the senate; as he was on the point of bringing the third before the people, Drusus was assassinated.

The disappointment of the Italian allies who had fixed their hopes upon Livius caused the revolt of nearly all the Italians excepting the *Latins*, most of the *Etruscans* and *Umbrians* and some southern cities,

and led to the

90-88. Marsian or social war.

The Italians formed a federal republic under the name *Italia*, governed by a senate of 500 senators from all Italian tribes. The capital was *Corfinium*. They appointed two consuls and twelve prætors.

The terrible danger reconciled for the moment the parties at Rome, and caused the adoption of energetic measures: repeated levies of citizens, and enrollment of *freedmen* in the army. The best generals

of both parties offered to serve under the consuls.

- 90. At the seat of war in the north, Marius fought against the Marsians and the other Sabellian tribes, for the most part, successfully. The Roman consul, Rutilius, fell; Cn. Pompeius Strabo, defeated at first, was afterwards victorious. At the southern seat of war (Campania, Samnium, Lucania), the allies got so decidedly the better of the Roman consul, L. Julius Cæsar, in spite of the dashing forays of Sulla, that the Etruscans and Umbrians, in the north, who had before remained faithful, were encouraged to revolt. In order to prevent this a law was passed
- Granting the right of citizenship to the Latins and to all districts among the above peoples which had remained faithful (lex Julia).

89. Successful conclusion of the war in the north. Superiority of the Roman arms in the south, especially under Sulla.

By the lex Plautia-Papiria Roman citizenship was given to all Italians who applied for it; they were, however, included in 8 tribes only which were especially designated. The towns of Cisalpine Gaul which had municipal organizations received Latin rights (lex Pompeia).

88. By this concession the war in the south was also in the main

brought to a close.

88-84. First Mithridatic war.

Cause: Mithradates or Mithridates VI., king of Pontus (120-63), had extended his power over the eastern shore of the Black Sea (Colchis) and along the Cimmerian Bosphorus (Crimea, and southern Russia). Kingdom of the Bosphorus. He had conquered Paphlagonia and Cappadocia and had provoked the interference of the senate by his encroachments on the client cities of Rome in Asia Minor. Already had Sulla, who was then proconsul in Cilicia, in 92, taken arms against him, and reinstated a king in Cappadocia. A second expulsion of this king, and quarrels of Mithridates with the king of Bithynia, who was supported by the Roman consul M. Aquillius, led to war.

88. Mithridates defeated Nicomedes, king of Bithynia, on the Amnias, a branch of the Halys, defeated the Roman generals, Oppius, Cassius, and Aquillius (the latter being cruelly put to death), and drove them out of Asia Minor. The Grecian cities of Asia joined him, and upon an order issued from Ephesus, put to death in one day all the Italians within their walls (80,000, or according to others 150,000).

Sulla, the consul for 88, was on the point of starting for Asia to attack Mithridates, when there broke out the

Civil war between Sulla (optimates) and Marius (democrats).

Direct cause: the revolutionary proposals of the tribune P. Sulpicius, which were carried by the most violent means, and particularly designed to secure the division of the new citizens, Italians and freedmen, among all the 35 tribes (ut novi cives libertinique in omnes tribus distribuerentur).

The populace under the control of demagogues deprived Sulla of the chief command and gave it to his opponent Marius, with proconsular power. Sulla marched with his army from Nola upon Rome and took the city by storm. Sulpicius and eleven other outlaws were killed upon the flight. Marius escaped by way of Minturnæ to Africa.

Sulla restored the old order of voting in the centuries as it had existed under the Servian constitution, but had been given up in 241 (p. 112), and decreed that in future the popular assemblies should not vote upon any measure which had not previously passed the

An optimate, Cn. Octavius, and a democrat, L. Cornelius Cinna, 87. were elected consuls. Sulla, as proconsul, took the command in the Mithridatic war.

During Sulla's absence Cinna endeavored to renew the laws of Sulpicius by violence. After a bloody struggle in the forum he was driven out by the optimates. He formed an army in Campania of armed bands of dissatisfied Italians, liberated slaves, etc., and uniting with the aged Marius, who had returned from Africa, with Q. Sertorius and Cn. Papirius Carbo, advanced upon Rome, which was compelled to surrender. Revolutionary reign of terror in the city. Five days' slaughter at Marius' command of all optimates who had not fled (among others L. and C. Cæsar, M. Antonius, P. Crassus, Q. Catulus), confiscation of their property, plundering and outrages of the armed bands.

Marius (for the 7th time) and Cinna, consuls; Sulla deposed in his absence. Death of Marius, over seventy years old. L. Valerius Flaccus was made consul in his stead and appointed by the popular party to the command of the Mithridatic war.

Tyrannical government of Cinna at Rome, regardless of the

newly restored democratic constitution.

Meantime the outlawed Sulla was conducting the war against Mithridates. The latter had sent his general Archelaus with an army and fleet to Greece, where most of the cities joined him at once, particularly Athens under the government of Aristion.

Sulla landed with 30,000 men in Epirus, advanced to Baotia, drove Archelaus and Aristion out of the country and besieged the former in Pirœus, the latter in Athens. He defeated an army of relief from Pontus, and after a tedious siege captured Athens. Sulla defeated Archelaus, who had voluntarily March. evacuated Piræus, gone by sea to Bœotia, and joined the reinforcements sent by Mithridates, in the

86. Battle of Chæronea and in the next year in the

85. Battle of Orchomenus, after which he went into winter quarters in Thessaly. In the following year Sulla, supported by a fleet of ships, collected from Asia Minor and Syria by Lucullus, marched through Macedonia and Thrace, crossed the Hellespont to Asia, and through the mediation of Archelaus concluded

84. Peace with Mithridates in Dardanos. I. Evacuation of the Roman province of Asia, restoration of all conquests made by Mithridates, and reinstatement of the kings of Bithynia and Cappadocia. II. Mithridates surrendered 80 ships of war and paid 3000 talents. After the conclusion of peace, Sulla turned his attention to the Roman army of the democratic party which had gone to Asia in 86 under the consul Flaccus, and, after his murder, had fought successfully under Fimbria (victory over the younger Mithridates at Miletopolis). A part of the army having gone over to Sulla, Fimbria committed suicide, whereupon the rest of his army joined Sulla. After leaving these troops behind (milites Flaviani, two legions) under Licinius Murena, and inflicting upon the Grecian cities of Asia Minor the immense fine of 20,000 talents (\$25,000,000), which Lucullus was to collect, Sulla sailed from Ephesus to Piræus, went by land to Patræ, and thence by sea to Italy.

83. Sulla landed with 40,000 men in Brundisium. After the death of Cinna (84), during a mutiny in Ancona, where he intended to embark against Sulla, his colleagues Carbo, the younger Marius, and Sertorius were the leaders of the democratic party; nevertheless for the year 83 neither of them, but instead two incapable men, L. Scipio and C. Norbanus, were elected consuls. Sulla, who upon landing was joined by the 23-year old Cn. Pompeius with an army of volunteers, formally guaranteed their rights to the Italians and marched against the consuls. He conquered Norbanus on Mt. Tifata and opened negotiations with Scipio, in the course of which

the entire army of the latter went over to Sulla.

Sulla rested for the winter in Capua, and fought during the following year against the younger Marius and Carbo, who had been appointed consuls. At Sacriportus Sulla defeated Marius, who retired to *Præneste*, where he was surrounded by a division of the army under Q. Ofella. Sulla perceived this, and passed rapidly through Rome to attack the democrats in Etruria, whither also a part of his army under Metellus, Pompeius, and Crassus had already forced its way from Picenum and Umbria and were pressing Carbo hard. On receipt of the news that strong Samnite bands were advancing to the relief of Præneste, Sulla went back to Latium, prevented the relief of Præneste, and repulsed an attack of the Samnites upon Rome (Nov. 82). More than 3000 prisoners were slaughtered at Sulla's command. Præneste surrendered, the younger Marius was put to death by his slaves at his own command. The party of Marius in northern Italy had already been completely defeated at Faventia. Carbo and Sertorius fled. Sulla took terrible vengeance upon the conquered cities and towns of Italy. The party of Marius in Spain was defeated at a later time by C. Annius and Valerius Flaccus; in Sicily and Africa it was defeated by Pompeius, whom Sulla allowed to triumph, and saluted with the surname of Magnus.

82. Sulla had himself appointed dictator in Rome for an unlimited time, for the sake of reorganizing the commonwealth (dictator reipublicae constituendae, a power analogous to that of the de-

Reactionary Reign of Terror. Proscription lists of the evil minded (lex de proscribendis malis civibus). The number of the outlawed, on whose death a reward was set, and whose property was confiscated amounted to 4700. Allotments of lands to the veterans of Sulla and establishment of military colonies with full right of citizenship in the territories of cities of the hostile party, whose right of citizenship was abrogated. Liberation of 10,000 slaves be-

longing to the proscribed citizens, and bestowal upon them of the right of citizenship (the so-called *Cornelians*).

83-81. Second Mithridatic War,

conducted by the proprætor *Murena* (p. 131), who occupied Cappadocia, which Mithridates, in spite of the peace, had not completely evacuated, and invaded Pontus, where he was defeated by Mithridates and obliged to withdraw. The war ended in a treaty

which was a renewal of the first peace.

Attempt at a conservative aristocratic reform of the government in Rome, by a series of laws originated by Sulla (leges Cornelia). Reorganization of the senate which had suffered severely from the proscriptions of the civil wars. It was now enlarged in an unprecedented manner by the addition of 300 members to be chosen by the comitia tributa. Admission to the senate became a prerogative of the quæstorship. Henceforward 20 quæstors were annually elected by Abolition of the censors' privilege of revising the comitia tributa. the roll of the senate every five years, and consequently introduction of the irremovability of the senators. Thus the senate, for a short time, was indirectly chosen by the people, and acquired a representatwe character. The places in the juries which C. Gracchus had transferred to the equites (p. 125) were restored to the senate. The privileges of the senate were further increased; it acquired, in particular, the right of prolonging the term of office of proconsuls and proprætors, and of removing them. The comitiæ lost the power of electing the priests, which had been given them in 104, the priestly colleges receiving again the right of filling their own vacancies. On the other hand Sulla gave up the Servian order of voting, the restoration of which had been attempted in 88. Powers of the tribunes of the people reduced, misuse of the right of interpellation punished with heavy fines, the right of the tribunes to initiate rogations subjected to the approval of the senate; it was also decreed that acceptance of the tribunate conveyed incapacity for accepting higher Reorganization of the department of justice, increase of the perpetual courts (quæstiones perpetuæ). Henceforward 8 prætors. Criminal legislation (lex de sicariis, de falso, etc.).

81. Sulla permitted the election of consuls, but continued to conduct the government under the title of dictator. For the year

80. He caused himself and his companion in arms, Q. Metellus, to to be elected consuls, and so bridged the way to constitutional government.

79. Sulla voluntarily abdicated the dictatorship and retired to private life.

78. Death of Sulla, probably in consequence of a hemorrhage.1

78-77. Attempt of M. Æmilius Lepidus (consul with Q. Lutatius Catulus, 78) and the Marian M. Junius Brutus, to violently overthrow the work of Sulla. Lepidus, on his way from Etruria to Rome at the head of an army, was defeated on the Campus Martius by Catulus; defeated a second time at Cosa, he fled to Sardinia, where he fell sick and died. Brutus was forced by Pompeius to surrender at Mutina, and was afterwards put to death.

80-72. War against Sertorius,

who in 83 had been allotted Lusitania and Spain as his province. He had been driven out (82) by Sulla's generals, and, after leading a roving life as an adventurer along the coasts of Spain and Africa, returned to Lusitania. Here this party leader, alike distinguished as statesman and general, had founded an independent sovereignty. Q. Metellus and even Cn. Pompeius waged for a long time unsuccessful war against him. He formed an alliance with Mithridates, but was murdered, in 72, by his subordinate Perperna. The latter was defeated and executed by Pompeius.

73-71. War of the Gladiators and (third) Servile War.

Bands of gladiators who had escaped from a gladiatorial school at Capua occupied Vesuvius under command of two Gauls and the Thracian Spartacus, and from this vantage-ground plundered and burned throughout the neighborhood. Reinforced by numerous slaves they grew to an army, and defeated four Roman armies in succession. Spartacus, who wanted to leave Italy, was forced by his companions to remain. He marched upon the capital. Terror in Rome. The prætor M. Licinius Crassus received the chief command. The insurgents refrained from attacking Rome and wandered about Italy ravaging and plundering. Crassus defeated them in two battles, in the second of which, on the Silarus, Spartacus fell, fighting valiantly. The remnants of the bands were annihilated by Pompeius, who was returning from Spain.

In 70 the consuls M. Licinius Crassus and Cn. Pompeius Magnus restored to the tribunate the privileges which it had lost under Sulla (p. 132). The Aurelian law (lex Aurelia), passed during their consulate, repealed the enactment of Sulla that the jurors should be taken exclusively from the senators; henceforth one third should be senators, two thirds men of the equestrian census (of these one half should be taken from the so-called tribuni-ærarii). Already, in 72, the privilege of the censors, of revising the roll of the senate, which Sulla had abolished, had been restored (p. 132), and probably five years became again the length of the censors' term of office. 64 senators were expelled from the senate by the censors Gellius and Len-

tulus.

¹ He did not die of the so-called *Phthiriasis*. Cf. Mommsen, *Hist. of Rome*, III. p. 390.

78-67. War against the pirates.

The result of the neglect of the Roman marine since the destruction of Carthage, and of the oppression of the Roman governors in Asia was a constant increase of piracy. There gradually grew up an organized pirate-community, whose principal seats were *Crete* and *Cilicia*. The pirates controlled the entire Mediterranean as far as the columns of Hercules, and captured the vessels which were conveying grain to Rome.

78. War had been waged with the pirates since 78, at first under the proconsul of Asia, P. Servilius, who destroyed many pirate

75. cities, and in the year 75 took possession of *Isauria*, *Pamphylia*, *Pisidia*, for Rome, under the name of **Cilicia**, and afterwards

74. under the prætor *M. Antonius*, who possessed most extensive powers, but accomplished little, and in 71 died at Crete after being defeated by the Cretans.

68. Metellus after a long contest, subdued Crete (province since 67), whose inhabitants lived for the most part, upon piracy. As

piracy still continued,

67. Pompeius received, on the motion of Gabinius (lex Gabinia), for three years unlimited command over the whole Mediterranean and its coasts for fifty miles inland; the public treasuries and resources of all the provinces and client states were placed unconditionally at his disposal. In three months Pompeius, in two short campaigns, completedly cleared first the western, then the eastern, Mediterranean of pirates, captured 3000 vessels, put to death 10,000 pirates, destroyed their fortresses, captured 20,000 men, and settled them in the interior of the country. (Construction of Pompeiopolis in Cilicia.)

74-64. Third Mithridatic war.

Cause: Strained relations between the Romans on the one side, and Mithridates of Pontus and his son-in-law, Tigranes of Armenia, on the other. The latter took possession of the kingdoms of Cappadocia and Syria. When Nicomedes III., of Bithynia, likewise son-in-law of Mithridates, bequeathed his kingdom to Rome, and Bithynia was made a Roman province, Mithridates declared war and occupied Bithynia.

74. The conduct of the war was entrusted to the two consuls L. Lucullus, who was to enter the kingdom of Pontus through Phrygia, and M. Aurelius Cotta, who sailed with the fleet for the Propontis. Mithridates defeated the latter by land and sea at Chalcedon and laid siege to Cyzicus, which was relieved by Lu-

cullus, who hastened from the south.

73. Mithridates was forced to retreat with great loss. Lucullus as proconsul conducted the war successfully at sea; then took the offensive on land, crossed the Halys (Kisil Irmak), traversed Pontus, defeated Mithridates at Cabira, and drove the king completely out of his kingdom. He took refuge with his son-in-law, Tigranes, while Lucullus, after a tedious siege, cap-

72-70. tured the trading cities Heraclea, Sinope, Amisus, and occupied

Armenia Minor.

Without waiting for authority from the senate, Lucullus opened war upon *Tigranes*, crossed the Euphrates into *Armenia* proper, defeated Tigranes in the famous

69. Battle of Tigranocerta,

captured that city, and then turned against the two kings who had now joined forces. Lucullus forced the passage of the Euphrates (68) by a second successful encounter with the enemy, crossed the river here in its upper course for the second time, marched through the Armenian plateau toward Artaxata, the residence of Tigranes, but was compelled by a mutiny among his soldiers (P. Clodius, brother-in-law of Lucullus) to begin a retreat over the Tigris to Mesopo-

tamia, long before he had reached Artaxata.2

Lucullus took Nisibis by storm, but was obliged to cross to the right bank of the Euphrates again to rescue a division of the army which had been cut off (67). Meantime Mithridates returned to Pontus and defeated a Roman force under Triarius at Zela (Ziela). New mutinies in the army of Lucullus, who was at the same time informed that he was slandered at Rome, that he had been recalled, and the consul M. Acilius Glabrio appointed in his stead. Glabrio went to Asia, but in consideration of the difficult position of affairs, did not assume command. Lucullus conducted the Roman army by a masterly retreat back to Asia Minor.

Mithridates, having not only reconquered *Pontus*, but also commenced to ravage *Bithynia* and *Cappadocia*, a law was passed at the instance of the tribune of the people, *C. Manilius* (Cicero's oration,

pro imperio Cn. Pompeii, or pro lege Manilia), entrusting

66. Cn. Pompeius with the command in Asia with unlimited powers.

Unfriendly meeting of Lucullus and Pompeius at Danala in Galatia. After concluding a treaty with the Parthians, whom he guaranteed possession of Mesopotamia, Pompeius opened the campaign partly with new troops, drove Mithridates out of Pontus, and defeated him in the

66. Battle by night on the Lycos (Yeshil Irmak), near the future Nicopolis in Armenia minor. Abandoned by Tigranes, Mithridates fled to Colchis. Pompeius followed as far as the Phasis, returning then to Armenia, where his ally, the king of the Parthians, had meantime made an inroad. At Artaxata Tigranes gave himself up to Pompeius, who permitted him to keep Armenia proper for his own kingdom, but took from him all his conquests, Syria, Phænicia, Cappadocia, and imposed upon him a fine of 6000 talents.

65. After an expedition northward, where he fought successfully with the Caucasian tribes, Pompeius for the second time abandoned the pursuit of Mithridates, who had taken refuge in the Tauric Chersonese (Crimea), and went to Pontus, and thence to Syria.

¹ Cf. Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. III. 2 The second victory of Lucullus was not gained near Artaxata. Cf. Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, IV. p. 70.

64-63. Organization of the Roman possessions in Asia, under Pompeius. New Provinces: 1. Pontus, comprising Bithynia (already treated as a province since 74), the coast of Paphlagonia, and the western part of Pontus proper, along the coast. The rest of the kingdom of Mithridates was given to vassal kings. 2. Syria, comprising at first only the coast from the gulf of Issus to Damascus, afterwards considerably enlarged. 3. Cilicia, reorganized by Pompeius, although it had been a province in name since 75. It included Pamphylia and Isauria (p. 134). These Asiatic provinces were much cut up, and surrounded by: (a) territories of autonomous cities; (b) princely and priestly sovereignties under Roman supremacy. The most distinguished of the vassal kings of Rome in the east were the king of Cappadocia, and Deiotarus, king of Galatia (p. 78). Palestine, after the capture of Jerusalem and the Temple, Pompeius restored Hyrcanus, who had been driven out by his brother, as highpriest and civil governor, but made him tributary to Rome.

Mithridates, who had busied himself with gigantic schemes of a land expedition to Italy, killed himself at Panticapæum, in the Tauric Chersonese, in consequence of the revolt of his son, Pharnaces. Upon receipt of this news Pompeius returned to Pontus. He confirmed Pharnaces in possession of the kingdom

of the Bosphorus.

61. Return of Pompeius to Italy. He dismissed his army at Brundisium, and entered Rome as a private citizen. Magnificent triumph, lasting two days.

66-62. Conspiracy of Catiline.

Union of the democrats and the anarchists. Leaders of the democrats: M. Crassus and C. Julius Cæsar (born 102?, son-in-law of Cinna, outlawed by Sulla, afterwards pardoned, 67 quæstor in Spain, 65 ædile, 63 pontifex maximus). Leader of the anarchists: L. Sergius Catilina, ex-prætor, one of Sulla's executioners. The democrats dreaded the reconciliation of Pompeius, whose military dictatorship was the work of their own hands, with the optimates. Hence they sought to overthrow the existing government before the return of Pompeius, by a violent revolution, while the anarchists, in part proletarians, in part young men of honorable families who were sunk in

debt, hoped for plunder and confiscation of property.

The first conspiracy, in 66, according to which the consuls for 65 were to be murdered, and Crassus made dictator, and Cæsar, master of the horse, failed of execution through the indecision of some participants. At the close of the year 64, it was again renewed for the purpose of securing the election of L. Catilina and C. Antonius (also a former follower of Sulla) at the consular elections for 63, by the influence of Cæsar and Crassus, who were to remain in the background. Antonius alone was, however, actually elected; his colleague for 63 was M. Tullius Cicero, a favorite lawyer and orator, belonging to no party unreservedly (born 106, 75 quæstor in Sicily, 70 prosecutor of Verres, 69 ædile, 66 prætor urbanus). The latter resigned beforehand to Antonius, who was deep in debt, the lucrative governorship of Macedonia, thereby detaching him from the conspirators.

Formation of an insurgent army in Etruria, under C. Manlius, a comrade of Catiline; at Rome organization of the conspirators, who, at a given signal, were to fire the city, and thereby produce universal confusion. Plan of Catiline to murder his competitors at the consular election for 62, and the consul, Cicero, who would preside over the election. Cicero, informed of this by his spies, denounced the conspiracy in the senate, appeared on the day of the election surrounded by numerous armed guards, and defeated the election of Catiline. The latter's plan of having Cicero surprised and murdered in his own house was also betrayed and failed.

63. Nov. 8. First speech of Cicero against Catiline delivered in the senate.

Catiline left the city, and betook himself to the army of Manlius in Etruria.

Nov. 9. Second speech of Cicero against Catiline, to the people. The accomplices of Catiline, Lentulus, Cethegus, Gabinius, Statilius, and Cæparius, were taken into custody on the strength of written proofs of guilt obtained by Cicero.

Dec. 3. Third speech of Cicero against Catiline, to the people.

Dec. 5. Fourth speech of Cicero against Catiline, in the senate. Decree of the senate that they should be strangled in prison without trial and sentence (Cæsar opposed the resolution; Cato's speech determined the vote), executed by the consul Cicero. Cicero greeted as pater patriæ.

The consul Antonius was entrusted with the conduct of the war against Catiline. His lieutenant defeated Catiline at Pistoria (62).

Catiline and 3000 of his followers fell on the field.

62. Cæsar administered the prætorship in Rome. A part of his large indebtedness having been paid by Crassus, he went for 61. the year to Hispania ulterior, as proprætor, where he laid the foundation of his military fame, and where he found means to discharge his debts. He returned bearing the honorary title of "imperator," but refused to triumph, in order that he might become a candidate for the consulship. The refusal of the senate to grant the allotment of lands requested by Pompeius for his veterans, led to a complete break between Pompeius and the government, and

60. First Triumvirate,

a reciprocal agreement of the three statesmen Pompeius, Cæsar, and Crassus. They secured the election for the next year of

59. Cæsar as consul.

resulted in the so-called

As his colleague, the optimate M. Bibulus, and the senate opposed the proposals brought in by Cæsar for an agrarian law, especially in the interests of Pompeius' veterans (lex Julia de agro campano: ut ager campanus plebi divideretur), and the ratification of the organization of Asia, these measures were submitted to the popular assemblies and passed by them, without the approval of the senate. Violence offered Bibulus and M. Porcius Cato. Bibulus did not dare leave his house again during his year of office. Intimate

friendship and close family ties between Cæsar and Pompeius. Cæsar's daughter, Julia, 23 years old, given to Pompeius in marriage. On the motion of P. Vatinius, tribune of the people, Cæsar received by a popular decree the government of Gallia Cisalpina and Illyricum for 5 years, with extraordinary powers. At Pompeius' motion the astounded senate added Gallia Narbonensis (p. 125) to Cæsar's province. A. Gabinius, a friend and military companion of Pompeius, and L. Piso, father-in-law of Cæsar, were elected consuls for the following year. The execution of the agrarian law was entrusted to Pompeius and Crassus. Before Cæsar departed for his province,

58. The absence of Cato and Cicero from Rome was procured by P. Clodius, tribune of the people, who had secured this office at the sacrifice of his patrician rank by hasty adoption into a plebeian family. Cato was appointed by a popular vote to take possession of the kingdom of Cyprus, which had been left to Rome by Cicero was driven to flight by the decree, "Whoever shall have caused the execution of a Roman citizen without legal sentence shall be punished with outlawry" (lex Clodia: ut qui civem Romanum indemnatum interemisset ei aqua et igni interdiceretur), and then banished by a second lex Clodia to a distance of 400 Roman miles from Rome. Clodius caused Cicero's house on the Palatine to be burned, and his

Tusculan and Formean estate to be ravaged. 58-51. Conquest of Gaul by Cæsar.

Results of Cæsar's eight years of brilliant warfare, and its meaning in the history of the world.

1. Annihilation of the Celts, as a nation, for whose lasting Romani-

zation Cæsar opened the way.

2. Creation of a dam which for four centuries protected the Romano-Hellenic civilization against destruction by the German barbarians.

3. Enlargement of the boundaries of the old world, not only by the immediate conquest, but also through the information obtained by

Cæsar's expeditions to Britannia and Germania.

4. Acquirement of the means for accomplishing the change, now become necessary, of the Roman republic into a monarchy: the veteran legions and troops of the allied states, who had become attached to their general and expert in war.

58. Victory of Cæsar over the Helvetians, who had invaded Gaul, at Bibracte, and over the German prince Ariovistus, N. E. of Vesontio (Besançon) in the vicinity of Mühlhausen in

Alsace² (Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum, I.).

57. Subjugation of the Belgii. Annihilation of the Nervii in Hennegau by a terrible battle on the Sambre, not far from Bavay (B. Gall. III.). In the southeast, occupation of Octodurus (Martigny), to secure the Alpine pass of the Great St. Bernard.

56. Subjugation of the Venetii in Armorica (Bretagne) by Cæsar,

¹ On the site of the modern Autun, according to V. Göler; two miles west of Autun according to Napoleon III. (Vie de César.)

² See Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, IV. p. 244, note.

after hard fighting on land and sea, and of the Aquitanii by his lieutenant P. Crassus, son of the triumvir. In the northeast, successful war with the Morinii and Menapii (B. Gall. III.).

55. Cæsar drove the Germanic tribes of the *Usipetes* and *Tenchterii* back across the Rhine. Passage of the Rhine on a bridge of piles, between *Coblence* and *Andernach*. After a stay of fifteen days on the right bank, Cæsar recrossed the stream. (B. Gall. IV.)

First expedition to Britain with two legions. Departure from two ports, one of which was Itius portus, E. and W. of Cape Grisnez, landing between Dover and Deal, probably at Walmer

Castle. (B. Gall. IV.)

54. Second expedition to Britain, with five legions. Cassivelaunus, leader of the British Celts. Cæsar crossed the Stour and the Thames (between Kingston and Brentford), while Cassivelaunus attacked the Roman camp where the ships lay. Retreat and embarkation of Cæsar after he had received hostages. (B. Gall. V.)

53. Insurrection of the *Eburones* under *Ambiorix*, and of other tribes. Cæsar crossed the Rhine a second time. (B. Gall. VI.)

52. General insurrection of the Gauls under the Arvernian, Vercingetorix. Siege and capture of Avaricum (Bourges) by Cæsar, occupation of Lutetia Parisiorum (Paris) by Labienus. Unsuccessful siege of Gergovia, near Clermont in the Auvergne; Cæsar, compelled to retreat, united with Labienus. Siege of Alesia (Alise Sainte-Reine at Semur in the Dép. Côte d'Or, between Châtillon and Dijon) by Cæsar, while the Roman army was in turn surrounded and besieged by the insurgent army of relief; after a hard fight, complete victory of Cæsar. Vercingetorix forced to surrender himself. He was executed at Rome, five years later (B. Gall. VII.).

51. Completion of the subjugation of Transalpine Gaul (cruel punishment of the insurgents). Ten legions located in detachments throughout the country held it in obedience to Cæsar.

While these magnificent feats of war were placing the older military fame of Pompeius in the shade, the latter was trying unsuccessfully to master the anarchy at Rome. Leader of the ultra-democrats, the former tribune, P. Clodius (pp. 135, 138). In opposition to him the recall of M. Tullius Cicero was procured in 57, by the efforts of the tribune T. Annius Milo. In the same year M. Porcius Cato returned to Rome. The aristocratic reaction opposed the armed bands of Clodius, which patrolled the streets and forum, with the armed bands of Milo. The attempt of the republicans in the senate to free themselves from the influence of the rulers, and the resolution to revise the agrarian law passed during the consulate of Cæsar, resulted in a renewal of the alliance of the three statesmen.

¹ Compare Heller, Cæsar's Expedition nach Brittanien, in the Zeitschrift für allg. Erdkunde, 1865. According to v. Göler, the first expedition started from Wissant near Cape Grisnez, the second from Calais.

In 56 a meeting of the triumvirs Cæsar, Pompeius, and Crassus, and their followers (200 senators) took place in Luca. In consequence of agreements there concluded, the election of Pompeius and Crassus as consuls for 55 was carried by the use of force. A decree of the people (lex Trebonia) then assigned to Pompeius the government of both Spains for five years, and to Crassus that of Syria, while Cæsar's command in Gaul was prolonged for five years more, and the payment of those troops which he had recruited on his own authority was assumed by the state. The Roman aristocracy was obliged to submit to these decrees.

After the close of his year of office as consul Crassus went to Syria in 54, where he undertook in 53 an expedition against the Parthians. He suffered a terrible defeat at Carrhæ in Mesopotamia, and was shortly after killed by the Parthians during an interview with one of their satraps. Pompeius remained in Rome, and dele-

gated the administration of his provinces to his legates.

In 52 Clodius and Milo happening to meet on the Via Appia, a fight sprang up between their followers, during which Clodius was wounded, and then, at Milo's command, put to death. Clodius' corpse was carried to the Curia Hastilia, near the forum in Rome, and there burnt, together with the building. To put an end to the disturbances of the mob which followed this event, Pompeius was appointed "consul without a colleague" by the senate, and clothed with dictatorial power. Trial of Milo, who was condemned by the jurors, in spite of Cicero's oration in his defence, to be banished. Cicero proconsul in Cilicia. Breach between Cæsar and Pompeius, whose connection had been previously weakened by the death of Julia (54). Pompeius selected his new father-in-law, Metellus Scipio, for his colleague in office, caused his governorship in Spain to be prolonged for five years, and deprived Cæsar of two legions, urging the importance of the Parthian war, which a victory had already ended.

Pompeius openly reassumed the leadership of the republican aristocracy (lex de vi et ambitu). Cæsar remained leader of the democracy, which under a constitution without representation led of necessity to monarchy. Demand of the senate that Cæsar should resign his command before the expiration of the term which had formerly been granted him. Refusal of the senate to permit Cæsar to stand for the consulship during his proconsulship, as had been allowed by

the citizens. This brought about the

49-48. Civil war between Cæsar and Pompeius.

The senate declared Cæsar a public enemy (hostis) should he not disband his army within a given time. The tribunes of the people who favored Cæsar fled to him at Ravenna.

49. Cæsar, with one legion, crossed the brook Rubicon, the boundary of his province, and thereby opened the civil war. Great consternation at Rome. Pompeius, who had only commenced his preparations, and the greater part of the senate, fled to Brundisium. Cæsar,

¹ Not the one which we have. This was written for the occasion, but the tumult and fear prevented its delivery.

reinforced by a second legion which had overtaken him, marched through Umbria, Picenum, where Domitius, at Corfinium, was obliged to surrender, and Apulia to Brundisium, to which he laid siege, after a third legion of veterans had joined him, and he had levied three new legions. Pompeius succeeded in conveying his troops, by two expeditions, to Greece, before the capture of the city. Cæsar, unable to follow him from lack of vessels, commenced the construction of a fleet, and went to Rome. There he quieted the apprehensions of a return of the horrors of the first civil war. Magnanimous behavior toward his foes (Cæsar, Bell. Civ. 1–33).

49. Cæsar went by land to Spain to subdue Pompeius' legates, Spring. leaving *Trebonius* to besiege *Massilia*. The legates of Pompeius, *Afranius* and *Petreius*, were compelled to surrender at Aug. *Ilerda* (Lerida), N. of the Ebro, and their army was dis-

banded (Cæsar, Bell. Civ. I. 34-87).

Varro, who commanded in Hispania ulteriora, threw himself into Gades (Cadix), but most of the cities joining Cæsar, he capitulated. On Cæsar's march back to Italy, Massilia, which was suffering from starvation, surrendered on being threatened with a storm (Cæsar, Bell. Civ. II. 1–22). Meantime Cæsar's legate Curio had reduced Sicily to subjection. He then crossed to Africa, where he was at first victorious at Utica, but was afterwards defeated at the Bagradas by Juba, king of Numidia, who had declared for Pompeius, and fell in the battle (Cæsar, Bell. Civ. II. 23–44).

Cæsar, during his absence, was proclaimed dictator at Rome by the prætor M. Æmilius Lepidus (on the authority of a new lex de dictatore creando), but abdicated the office after eleven days, and had himself appointed consul, with P. Servilius, for

the year

48. while that part of the senate which had participated in Pompeius' flight to Greece prolonged the term of office of the term of office of the term of offic

peius and all the officials of the previous year.

Cæsar landed in northern Epirus, at Oricum, not far from the promontory of Acroceraunia, with a part of his army. The transports which returned for the rest of the troops were mostly captured by the fleet of Pompeius; and the coasts of Italy being sharply watched, Cæsar was placed in a situation of great difficulty, as M. Antonius was able to transport the second half of the army only after several months. His army being at last united, Cæsar inclosed the army of Pompeius at Dyrrhachium by a long chain of military posts. Daily skirmishes, for the most part favorable for Cæsar. At last however, Pompeius broke through Cæsar's line. Cæsar, defeated and compelled to retreat, went to Thessaly, whither Pompeius followed him, leaving Cato in Dyrrhachium. In the Thessalian plain was fought the

48. Decisive battle of Pharsalus.

Aug. 9. Cæsar, with about 22,000 men, defeated and completely scattered the army of Pompeius, which had more than twice that strength; 20,000 men laid down their arms. Pompeius fled to the coast, and took ship for Egypt by way of Lesbos. At the command

of the minister of the young king, Ptolemæus, he was murdered upon landing. Cæsar followed Pompeius and landed in Alexandria with

4000 men (Cæsar, Bell. Civ. III.).

Especial honors paid to Cæsar in Rome (consulate for five years, tribunate for life, dictatorship for one year). Cæsar having taken it upon himself, at Alexandria, to decide between the ten-year old Ptolemæus and his followers and his sixteen-year old sister Cleopatra, there broke out the so-called

48-47. Alexandrine war,

an uprising of the whole population of Alexandria, supported by the Roman army of occupation, which had been in garrison there since the restoration of the king Ptolemœus Auletes (55). Cæsar, besieged in the royal palace, was in the greatest danger, from which only his reckless daring rescued him. He caused the Egyptian fleet to be set on fire, whereby the famous library of Alexandria (s. 77) was also burned. Cæsar, with the help of an army of relief which arrived from Asia, defeated the Egyptian army on the Nile. The young king Ptolemæus was drowned on the flight. The government was given to Cleopatra and her younger brother, under Roman supremacy, and a Roman garrison was left in Alexandria. Cæsar went to Asia Minor, and in a five days' campaign (veni, vidi, vici) ended the

47. War against Pharnaces,

son of Mithridates (p. 136), who had occupied *Pontus*, *Arme- nia Minor*, and *Cappadocia*. Cæsar defeated him at *Zela* and forced him to fly. Pharnaces fell in battle against a revolted governor. Arrangement of the Asiatic relations. *Deiotarus*, who had fought against Cæsar at Pharsalus, lost the greater part of his kingdom.

Return of Cæsar to Rome. After he had subdued a mutiny of the

tenth legion, he undertook the

47-46. War in Africa

against the adherents of Pompeius, Sextus Pompeius, Scipio, Cato, Labienus, Petreius, king Juba. Cæsar landed at Hadrumetum, where he was in great danger, since the larger part of his force did not arrive till later in consequence of a storm. After several unimportant encounters Cæsar defeated and annihilated the republican army, which far outnumbered his own, in the

46. Battle of Thapsus,

during and after which 50,000 of the enemy were slaughtered by Cæsar's embittered soldiers. Scipio killed himself on the flight, Cato committed suicide in Utica, Petreius and Juba agreed to kill one another, in a personal contest. Juba struck Petreius down; and being himself but slightly wounded, had himself killed by one of his slaves. Labienus and Sextus Pompeius escaped to the latter's brother, Cn. Pompeius, in Spain.

A part of Numidia was united with the province of Africa by Cæsar; the rest was given to Bocchus, king of eastern Mauritania. Return of Cæsar to Rome, where he celebrated four triumphs, for

Gaul, Egypt, Pharnaces, Africa. Entertainments for the people, splendid games, distribution of gold and grain. Cæsar was appointed dictator for 10 years, and censor without a colleague, under the title præfectus morum, for 3 years. Correction of the Calendar, by an extraordinary intercalation of 67 days in the year 46; thereafter there was a solar year of 365½ days (a leap-year every four years without exception).

46-45. War against the sons of Pompeius,

Cnœus and Sextus, and the rest of the Pompeian party. Although repulsed before Corduba by Sextus Pompeius, Cæsar by great exertions defeated both brothers in the

45. Battle of Munda, north of Ronda, between

Cordova and Gibraltar, in which he was obliged to lead the legions against the enemy in person. Over 30,000 Pompeians were slain, and among them Labienus, Varus, Cn. Pompeius; Sextus es-

caped.

After Cæsar had returned to Rome he caused the senate to appoint him at first (45) consul for 10 years, afterwards (44) dictator, and censor for life. Since 48 he had borne the new official title Imperator, which denotes the possessor of the imperium, the concept of civil and military official power. This included full control of the finances and the military power of the state, and also the right of coining money with the portrait of the ruler of the state. As præfectus morum (censor) Cæsar had the right of enlarging the senate; as pontifex maximus he possessed the control of religious affairs; as possessor since 48 of a power resembling that of the tribunes, he had the initiative in legislation, and was the inviolable (sacrosanctus) protector and representative of the people. Accordingly the position and powers of the new democratic monarch were almost exactly analogous to those of the old Roman kings.

The people retained, nevertheless, at least in form, a share of the sovereignty, all laws affecting the constitution requiring, as under the republic, to be ratified by the comitiæ, which were, however, easily controlled. The senate became again, what it had been under the kings, an advisatory council only. Cæsar brought the number of members up to 900 and increased the number of quæstors from 20 to 40. Election to this office, it will be remembered (p. 132), admitted the holder to the senate. The democratic monarch, however, exercised to the utmost his right of appointing senators, and thereby gravely offended the nobility. Ex-centurions, Spaniards, Gauls, sons of freedmen, etc., found through him admission to the senate. The monarch had an extensive right of nomination at the elections of magistrates.

Restoration of the old royal jurisdiction exercised by decision of the monarch alone, from whose sentence there was no appeal, — a right which, of course, was but rarely exercised (trial of *Ligarius* and of *Deiotarus*). In general the ordinary judicial system was retained. Prætors increased to 16.

Reorganization of the military system. Creation of legati legionis

¹ Cf. Mommsen, Hist. of Rome, IV. 468, note.

pro prætore, appointed by the imperator. Reform of the financial administration. The system of tax-farming was exchanged for the imposition of direct taxes. Allotment of the Italian domains, particularly among the veterans. Wide-spread colonization in the provinces with the view at once of Latinizing the provinces, and of diminishing the number of proletarians in the capital. Commencement of magnificent buildings in Rome. New system of provincial administration for the protection of the provinces against the extortions of the governors. Sumptuary laws. Criminal legislation. Arrangement of the relations of debtor and creditor.

Project of a war against the Parthians, to revenge the Roman defeat under Crassus (p. 140) and add to the security of the eastern boundary of the empire. Conspiracy of some 50 republican aristocrats against Cæsar's life (M. Junius Brutus, C. Cassius, Longinus, C. Trebonius, Decimus Brutus, Tellius Cimber, etc.).

44. Assassination of Cæsar during a session of the March 15. senate,

which on that day was held by chance in a hall in the theatre of Pompeius. Cæsar fell, pierced with 23 wounds, at the foot

of a statue of Pompeius.

For a moment the senate took the reigns of government again, and decreed that Cæsar's laws should continue in force, and offered an amnesty to his murderers. But the populace of the capital, incited by the funeral oration of M. Antonius, violently assaulted the conspirators. The leaders of the conspirators departed for the provinces which the senate had assigned them: M. Brutus to Macedonia, Cassius to

Syria, Decimus Brutus to Gallia cisalpina.

In Rome M. Antonius (consul with *Dolabella*), having possession of Cæsar's papers, assumed an uncontrolled power under pretext of executing the will of the dictator, and caused Macedonia, the province of M. Brutus, to be assigned to himself with five of the six legions which Cæsar had dispatched thither for the Parthian war. Dolabella received Syria, the province of Cassius, while the provinces of Crete and Cyrene were assigned to M. Brutus and Cassius. Antonius, moreover, procured from the popular assembly the province of Gallia cisalpina, which the senate had refused him. In the hope of balancing the usurped power of Antonius, the senate entered into negotiations with the eighteen-year-old C. Octavius, Cæsar's grandnephew and adopted son, henceforward known as C. Julius Cæsar Octavianus. The latter, who was beloved by his soldiers, took command of two legions. Antonius, endeavoring to eject Decimus Brutus from his province of Gallia cisalpina, there broke out the so-called 44-43. War of Mutina.

As was advocated by Cicero in the *Philippics*, *Hirtius* and *Pansa*, consuls for 43, and the young Octavianus as proprætor, were sent against Antonius, who was besieging Decimus Brutus in *Mutina* (Modena). *Pansa* died at Bononia of a wound received in the first encounter; *Hirtius* fell as victor in the

43. Battle of Mutina

against Antonius, who was now declared an enemy of the state

(hostis). While Decimus Brutus followed him to Gallia cisalpina, Octavianus, now sole commander of the army which was originally the army of the senate, marched to Rome, and extorted his appointment to the consulship, the repeal of the amnesty extended to the conspirators, and their sentence (lex Pedia). This accomplished, he took the field, in appearance, against Antonius, with whom he already had had secret negotiations. Meantime Decimus Brutus was abandoned by his troops, captured upon his flight, and put to death at Antonius' command. At a meeting near Bononia,

43. The Second Triumvirate was formed

Nov. avowedly for the "Organization of the State" (triumviri reipublicæ constituendæ) by Antonius, Octavianus, and Lepidus, the former magister equitum of Cæsar. This new assumption of
power was ratified by a decree of the people for a period of five years.
New proscriptions; several hundred senators and 2000 equites
outlawed and their property confiscated. Murder of Cicero. The
triumvirs began

43-42. War against the republican party

and crossed to Greece, where they were opposed by M. Brutus, who, despite the senate's decree, had taken possession of his province, and C. Cassius, who had defeated *Dolabella* in Syria and driven him to commit suicide. In the

42. Battle of Philippi

in Thrace, Antonius, who commanded the right wing, defeated the left wing of the republican army under Cassius, while Brutus with the left wing of the republicans drove back Octavianus. Hearing a false report of the defeat of Brutus, Cassius caused one of his slaves to put him to death. Brutus, being defeated by Antonius in a second battle, killed kimself.

Antonius ravaged the provinces of Asia and Syria, and then followed Cleopatra (p. 142), whom he had ordered to meet him at Tarsus, to Egypt. Meantime Octavianus, in Italy, was carrying out the promised allotments of land among the veterans. Quarrels between himself and the followers of Antonius led to the so-called

41-40. Civil war of Perusia

Antonius, the brother, and Fulvia, the wife of the triumvir, on the other. L. Antonius was compelled to surrender in Perusia. Octavianus, now supreme ruler of Italy, assumed the administration of Gauland Spain, while Lepidus was put off with the government of Africa. Another civil war threatened, but was avoided by a compromise, which the death of Fulvia facilitated. Antonius married Octavia, the sister of Octavianus. The administration of the empire was divided between the triumvirs, so that

40. Octavianus received the west, Antonius the east, and Lepidus Africa.

39. In the following year, however, the triumvirs were obliged to make terms with Sextus Pompeius, who had created a naval

empire, with Sicily as the base, and had cut off the grain supplies from Rome. By the treaty of Misenum Sextus Pompeius received Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica (?) and Peloponnesus, with the promise of a reim-

bursement for the loss of his paternal property.

Antonius went to the east, where he lived for the most part with Cleopatra in Egypt. He carried on, however, a war with the Parthians, at first through his legate Ventidius (39), and afterwards in person (36), but without much success. New quarrels led to the

Sicilian war **38–36.**

between the triumvirs and Sextus Pompeius. Octavianus, abandoned by both his colleagues, was obliged to conduct the war alone at first, and suffered great loss at sea. A difference between Octavianus and Antonius was made up at a meeting in Tarentum, and Octavianus gave Antonius two Italian legions for the Parthian war, while Antonius placed 100 ships at the service of Octavianus against Sextus Pompeius. By means of this reinforcement, Octavianus got the upper hand of Sextus, especially since M. Vipsanius Agrippa commanded his fleet. Sextus Pompeius, defeated by Agrippa at Mylx, fled to Asia and died in Miletus. In the mean time, Lepidus, who had landed in Sicily, demanded this island for himself. Abandoned by his men, he was forced to surrender to Octavianus, who permitted him to retain the dignity of Pontifex Maximus, and sent him to Circeii. The administration of Africa was assumed by Octavianus.

35-33. Campaigns of Octavianus against the Alpine tribes, the Dalmatians, and the Illyrians. Antonius defeated Artavasdes, king of Armenia, captured him, and led him in triumph at Alexandria.

New disputes between Octavianus and Antonius. The latter presented Cleopatra with Roman territory, and sent his wife Octavia, the sister of Octavianus, papers of separation. Octavianus procured a popular decree removing Antonius from his command and declaring war upon Cleopatra.

31-30. War between Octavian and Antonius,

also called Bellum Actiacum.

During the long delay of Antonius and Cleopatra in Ephesus, Athens, and at Patræ in Achaia, Octavianus completed his preparations and transported his army to Epirus. His fleet of 250 ships, under the command of Agrippa, defeated the fleet of Antonius and Cleopatra, which outnumbered it, in the

31. Battle of Actium,

Sept. 2 Cleopatra fled before the battle was entirely decided, and was followed by Antonius. The army of Antonius surrendered to Octavianus without a blow.

30. Octavianus went to Asia, where he entered upon his fourth consulship, returned for a short time to Italy by sea to repress a revolt, and then returned to his troops and marched through Syria to Egypt. Antonius, abandoned by his troops, killed himself on hearing a false report of Cleopatra's death. The latter, when convinced that Antonius spared her only that she might grace his triumph in Rome, poisoned herself. Octavianus made Egypt a Roman province. Octavianus sole ruler, after the manner of Cæsar (p. 143).

29. Octavianus celebrated three triumphs in Rome, and the temple of Janus was closed for the third time in Roman history.1

FIFTH PERIOD.

Reigns of the Roman Emperors down to the Fall of the Western Empire.²

31 (30) B. C.-476 A. D.

B. C. A. D.

31-68. The five Julii, or the descendants of Cæsar's adopted son,

31–14. Cæsar Octavianus Augustus.

The surname Augustus (the *Illustrious*, the *Sublime*), which was given Octavianus by the senate in 27 B. C., is the name by which, as sole ruler of the Roman world, he is most commonly known; it also became, like Princeps, Casar, Imperator (p. 143), the title of the Roman sovereigns. In later times Casar became a peculiar designa-

tion of the appointed successor of a reigning Augustus.

Augustus reduced the senate to 600 members and made a high census (one million sesterces) the necessary condition of admission. The consular office was retained in name, but was sometimes held for a series of years by the imperator; sometimes granted, as a special distinction, to some one else for a short time (two months). The præfectus urbi, having police and criminal jurisdiction, and the præfectus prætorio, commander of the standing body-guard of nine (afterwards ten) prætorian cohorts, became the most important officers. Division of Rome into 14, of Italy into 11, regiones.

B. C. 27, new division of the provinces into senatorial, comprising those quiet provinces which could be administered without an army (Africa, Asia, Achaia, Illyricum, Macedonia, Sicilia, Creta, with Cyrenaica, Bithynia, Sardinia, Hispania Bætica), and imperial, including those where an army was maintained, and which were administered by legates in the name of Augustus (Hispania Tarraconensis, Lusitania; the four provinces of Gaul: Narbonensis, Lugdunensis, Aquitania, and Belgica; Germania superior et inferior, Mæsia, Syria, Cilicia, Cyprus, Ægyptus). 4

Period of the highest development of Roman literature. Macenas († B. C. 8), friend of Augustus, patron and protector of the poets: P. Vergilius Maro (70-19 B. C.), Q. Horatius Flaccus (65-8 B. C.);

1 Once under Numa, and once in 235. [Trans.].
2 Peter, Röm. Gesch. III.8, 1871, and Röm. Gesch. in kürzerer Fassung,
2d ed. 1878, p. 475 foll.

8 Princeps was, it is true, not an official title. About the meaning of this designation and its relation to the dignity of the *Princeps senatus*, see Marquardt-Mommsen, *Rom. Alth.* II.², 2, p. 750 foll.

4 Later many changes were made in this division. All provinces created

after 27 B. C. were assigned to the emperor.

the elegiac poets, C. Valerius Catullus (87-54 B. c.), Albius Tibullus (54-19 B. C.?), S. Propertius (49-15 B. C.?); P. Ovidius Naso (born 43 B. C., 9 A. D. banished to Tomi on the Pontus Euxinus, † 17). The historian T. Livius (59 B. C.–17 A. D.)

Family of Augustus.

C. Julius Cæsar Octavianus Augustus, b. 63 B. C., † 14 A. D. Married:

1. Claudia. 2. Scribonia. 3. Livia. Tiberius and Drusus, Sons of Tiberius Claudius Nero and Livia. Julia, † A. D. 14. Married: 2. M. Vipsanius Agrippa. 3. Tiberius. 1. Marcellus, † A. p. 12. son of Octavia. † B. C. 23. Lucius Cæsar. Agrippa Postumus. Julia. Gaius Cæsar. Agrippina. † A. D. 33. † A. D. 28. † A. D. 4. † A. D. 2.

Julia (the elder) was banished to the island of Pandataria because of her excesses. Gaius Cæsar and Lucius Cæsar were adopted by Augustus B. C. 17, and designated as his successors. Agrippina (the elder) married Germanicus, son of Drusus, and became the mother of the younger Agrippina, the mother of Nero (p. 150). Postumus, almost an idiot, was adopted, but afterward banished to the island of Planasia. Julia (the younger) was also banished. Tiberius, son of Livia by her first husband, Tiberius Claudius Nero, was adopted by Augustus, A. D. 4.

29. Mæsia subjugated (made a province in 16 B. C.?).

27-25. Expedition of Augustus against the Cantabri and Astures, the operations against whom he was obliged, on account of sickness, for the most part to leave to his legates.

Expedition to Arabia, without results, conducted by C. Ælius **25.** Gallus, prefect of Egypt. Subjugation of the Alpine tribe of

the Salassi. Foundation of Augusta Prætoria (Aosta).

23. Augustus caused the senate to confer upon him for life the dignity of the tribunate, and the proconsular imperium in general.

22 and 21. Successful war against the Ethiopians, conducted by Pe-

tronius, the successor of Gallus in Egypt.

- 20. Campaign of Augustus against the Parthians, whose king Phraates, upon hearing of the arrival of Augustus in Syria restored the Roman standards which had been taken from Crassus. Tigranes was reinstated in the kingdom of Armenia by Tiberius.
- 19. Subjugation of Spain completed by the conquest of the Cantabri and Astures.
- 15. After the subjugation of the tribes from the northern boundary of Italy to the Danube, Rætia was made a Roman province, along with Vindelicia (Augusta Vindelicorum, now Augsburg) and Noricum.

12-9. Starting from the left bank of the Rhine (Germania superior and Germania inferior, which had been constituted provinces in 27), Drusus undertook four campaigns in Germany proper, and led the Roman armies to the Weser and the Elbe. Drusus died upon the way back.

8-7. **Tiberius**, the brother of Drusus and his successor in the command, after he had subjugated Pannonia (12-9), compelled a portion of the Germanic tribes on the right bank of the Rhine

to recognize the supremacy of Rome.

Birth of Christ (four years before the commencement of our era?).

- 6-9. An attack made by Tiberius upon the Suevian kingdom of Marbod was interrupted by an insurrection of the Illyrian and Pannonian tribes, which were reduced to subjection only after a severe contest.
- 10. Pannonia (the S. W. portion of Hungary) made a Roman province.
- 9(?). Three Roman legions under Quintilius Varus annihilated in the Teutoburg forest, by Arminius (Hermann?), a leader of the Cherusci, and husband of *Thusnelda*.

Lex Papia Poppæa and Lex Julia directed against celibacy.

14. Augustus died at Nola, in the seventy-sixth year of his age.

14-37. Tiberius (Claudius Nero),

step-son of Augustus, by whom he had been adopted, a suspicious despot. The (formal) right of ratifying laws transferred from the *comitiæ* to the *senate*. The law against high treason (*de maiestate*) was extended to include the most trivial offences offered the sovereign. Rewards given to informers (*delatores*).

Revolt of the legions on the Rhine, quelled by Germanicus, son of the elder Drusus, and of the legions in Pannonia quelled by the

younger Drusus, son of Tiberius (Tacitus, Annales. I. 16-49).

14-16. Three expeditions under Germanicus against the Germans. On the third attempt, which was made by sea, Drusus landed at the mouth of the Ems, and crossed the Weser. Roman victory in the battle on the Campus Idistaviso (according to Grimm, Idisiaviso, "meadow of the elves") over Arminius, between Minden and Hameln. In spite of the success of the Roman arms the right bank of the Rhine remained free (Tac. Ann. II. 5-26).

17. Germanicus recalled from Germany, through the envy of Tiberius, and sent to the East, installed a king in Armenia, made Cappadocia a Roman province, and died (19) in Syria (of poi-

son, administered by Piso?).

23-31. Rule of the abandoned Sejanus, Tiberius' favorite. By uniting the prætorian cohorts in one camp near Rome, Sejanus laid the foundation of the future power of the prætorians.

23. Sejanus poisoned Drusus, son of Tiberius.

27. Tiberius took up his residence in Capreæ (Capri).

29. Banishment of the elder Agrippina († 33). — Livia †.

- 31. Trial of Sejanus, who was executed in company with many others (accomplices in the conspiracy?). Macro succeeded Sejanus in the favor of Tiberius.
- 37-41. Caligula (properly, Gaius Cæsar Germanicus), youngest son of Germanicus, called by the soldiers Caligula (bootling), a cruel, half-crazy tyrant (oderint, dum metuant!). Self-adoration. Bridge over the bay of Puteoli. Childish expedition with an immense army to the coast of Gaul (39-40), which ended with the collection of mussels (spolia oceani). After his murder the prætorians proclaimed as imperator his uncle,

41-54. Claudius (Tiberius Claudius Nero),

son of Drusus, younger brother of Germanicus, a weak-minded, vacillating prince, ruled by miserable favorites (the freed-men Narcissus and Pallas) and his wives: 1, the shameless Messalina, and, after he had caused her to be killed, 2, the ambitious Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus (Tacitus, Annales, XI. and XII.).

Commencement of the conquest of Britain under the command of A. Plautius and his legate, T. Flavius Vespasianus; the southern part of Britain became a Roman province (Tacitus,

Agricola, 13, 14; Ann. XII. 31-40).

During Claudius' reign the following provinces were incorporated: in Africa, Mauretania, Tingitana, and Mauretania Cæsariensis (42); in the east Lycia (43), Thracia (46), Judæa, which had been a de-

pendent kingdom 41-44, became in 44 a province again.

Agrippina persuaded Claudius to adopt L. Domitius, her son by Cn. Domitius (he took the name of Nero at his adoption), and to appoint him his successor in place of his own son by Messalina, Britannicus, whose sister Octavia was the promised wife of Nero. As Claudius showed signs of repenting of the adoption of Nero, Agrippina poisoned him.

54-68. Nero (Nero Claudius Cæsar Augustus Germanicus), proclaimed imperator by the prætorians, was for the first five years of his reign under the guidance of the præfectus prætorio Burrus and his teacher L. Seneca, who prevented the influence of his mother Agrippina from becoming predominant. Law against informers.

With Nero's passion for the freedwoman Acte, and afterwards for Poppæa Sabina, the opposition between himself and his mother grew stronger and stronger, and the list of his crimes began. He poisoned (55) his step-brother Britannicus, whom his mother had threatened to make imperator, had Agrippina put to death (59), drove from him his wife Octavia, whom he afterwards executed (62), and married Poppæa Sabina. Excesses and mad cruelty of Nero. He appeared in public as chariot-driver in the races, actor, and singer. Crawling servility of the senate (Tac. Ann. XIII.—XVI.).

61. Revolt in Britain, suppressed by Suetonius Paulinus.

58-63. War with the Parthians and Armenians. After the capture and destruction of Artaxata, Domitius Corbulo forced King Tiridates of Armenia to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome.

- 64. A fire of six days' duration, followed by another lasting three days, destroyed a large part of Rome (set by Nero's command, in order that he might rebuild the city more beautifully?). Nero accused the Jews and the communities of Christians of setting fire to the city.
- 64. First persecution of the Christians.1

Re-building in Rome, on a large scale. The palace of Nero (domus aurea) occupied the entire Palatine and extended to the Esquiline.

65. Conspiracy of *Piso* discovered (Seneca †).

- 68. Revolt in Gaul (C. Julius Vindex) and in Hispania citerior, where the governor Sulpicius Galba, then 73 years of age, was proclaimed and acknowledged imperator. Nero fled and killed himself on the estate of one of his freedmen in the neighborhood of Rome.
- 68-69. Galba (Servius Sulpicius Galba),
- June-Jan. whose avarice soon gained him the hatred of his soldiers (Tac. Hist. I.), and who became the victim of the revolt of
- 69. Otho (Lucius Salvius Otho Titianus),
- Jan.-Apr. once a favorite of Nero's (Tac. Hist. I. II.) The legions on the Rhine had already proclaimed as imperator
- 69. Vitellius (Aulus Vitellius),
- Apr.—Dec. who defeated Otho in the neighborhood of Cremona, entered Rome and made the city the scene of his senseless gluttony and extravagance. (Tac. Hist. II., III.)
- 69-96. The three Flavian emperors.
- 69-79. Vespasianus (Titus Flavius Vespasianus)

proclaimed imperator through the influence of Licinius Mucianus, governor of Syria, at first in Alexandria, afterwards by his own legions and those of Syria in Palestine, where he was conducting the war against the Jews who had been in revolt since 66. Vespasianus transferred the military command to his son, Titus, and went to Rome, after a long stay at Alexandria, to find that his adherents had already put Vitellius to death. Restoration of discipline in the army and order in the finances. Reorganization of the senate.

69-71. Revolt of the Batavians under Julius (Claudius?) Civilis (Tac. Hist. IV.),

one of their leaders of royal descent. The insurgents at first declared that they took up arms not against the Roman empire, but against Vitellius, and for Vespasianus. Thus they gained the assistance of a large part of the Roman soldiers in those parts. Claudius Civilis repeatedly defeated the Romans, and, reinforced by Germans from the other side of the Rhine, thirsting for booty, he advanced far into Gaul. A great part of the Gallic tribes joined

¹ But see Overbeck, Studien z. Gesch. d. alten Kirche, Pt. 1, p. 93 foll.

93.

him, and for a moment he dreamed of founding an independent Gallic Empire. When once Vespasian's power in Rome was secure, however, Cerealis, favored by the quarrels which had broken out between the allied *Batavians*, *Gauls*, and *Germans*, put an end to the revolt, and again reduced all Gaul under the Roman supremacy.

70. Capture of Jerusalem by Titus (p. 12). Triumphal arch of Titus in Rome. Erection of the Amphitheatrum Flavium (Col-

osseum).

78. Agricola, father-in-law of the historian Tacitus, made preparations for the complete subjugation of Britain. Vespasianus was succeeded by his son,

79-81. Titus (Titus Flavius Vespasianus),

called, because of his admirable qualities, amor et deliciæ generis humani. Punishment of informers.

- 79. Eruption of Vesuvius. Herculaneum buried by lava, Pompeii by ashes and mud. Death of the elder Plinius, the leader of the Roman fleet at Misenum.
- 80. Fire and plague in Rome. Titus was succeeded by his brother,

81-96. Domitianus (Titus Flavius Domitianus),

a cowardly, cruel despot. He undertook a campaign against the Chatti (83), but returned without having seen a foe, notwithstanding which he celebrated a triumph. During his reign the construction of the Roman boundary wall between the Rhine and the Danube was commenced. It was guarded by soldiers, who were settled upon public land along its course (agri decumates).

81-84. Successful campaigns of Agricola in Britain, whereby the

-84. Successful campaigns of Agricola in Britain, whereby the Roman power was extended as far as Scotland. Agricola

recalled by Domitian through envy.

86-90. Unsuccessful wars against the *Dacians*. Domitian bought peace of *Decebalus* by a yearly tribute.

Death of Agricola (poisoned by order of Domitian?). Cruel

persecution of the Jews, Christians, and philosophers.

96. Domitianus murdered by the freedman *Stephanus*, the empress, who was in fear of her own life, and the præfectus prætorio, *Petronius Secundus*, being cognizant of the crime.

96-192. Nerva and his adopted family.

96-98. Nerva (Marcus Cocceius Nerva),

a senator 64 years of age, was raised to the throne by the murderers of Domitian. He repealed the law of treason, recalled the exiles, and reduced the taxes. He adopted and appointed as his successor

98-117. Trajan (Marcus Ulpius Traianus),

governor of the province of Germania inferior, born in the Roman colony of Italica in Spain, the first occupant of the throne of the Cæsars who was not an Italian. Excellent ruler and general. Magnificent buildings in Rome (Forum Traianum) and throughout the empire.

101-102. First war against the Dacians, in consequence of Trajan's refusal to pay the tribute promised by Domitian. Trajan crossed the Danube, captured the fortress of the king Decebalus and forced him to make peace and cede a portion of his territory.

105-107. In the second war against the **Dacians** Trajan built a stone bridge across the Danube (at Turnu Severinu), crossed the stream, defeated and subdued the Dacians. Decebalus killed himself. Magnificent games at Rome, wherein 10,000

gladiators are said to have appeared.

Dacia, that is Wallachia, Moldau, Eastern Hungary, and Transylvania (Siebenbürgen), made a Roman province. Settlement of numerous colonists in Dacia, from whom the present Roumanians derive their descent. It would be more correct to say their language only, the Roumanian or Daco-Romanic, which prevails in Wallachia, Moldau and a part of Transylvania. The column of Trajan at Rome completed in 113.

The governor of Syria took possession (105) of the region E. and S. of Damascus and of Judæa to the northern end of the Red Sea,

as the Roman province of Arabia.1

114-116. Wars of Trajan with the Parthians. Chosroës, nephew of the Parthian king, driven from Armenia. Armenia, Mesopotamia, Assyria, including Babylonia, made Roman provinces.

Trajan, favored, as it seems, by internal troubles in the Parthian monarchy, conquered Seleucia and Ctesiphon on the Tigris, and sailed down the river to the Persian Gulf. Trajan, having appointed a king over the Parthians, started upon his return, but died at Selinus (Trajanopolis) in Cilicia.

117-138. Hadrian (Publius Ælius Hadrianus),

adopted by Trajan (?). A lover of peace, an excellent administrator, learned and vain. Hadrian abandoned the new provinces of Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, so that the Euphrates formed the eastern boundary of the Roman empire. He restored quiet in Mæsia, and strengthened his power by the execution of those who conspired against him.

120. Hadrian began his progress through all the provinces of the em-

pire, with a visit to Gaul.

Magnificent buildings: in Rome the Moles Hadriani, on the site of the present Castle of St. Angelo, and the double temple of Venus and the goddess Roma, and the Athenœum; in Athens, the city of Hadrian (the Olympieum completed). Magnificent villa at Tibur (Tivoli).

In Britain a wall of defence was built against the Picts and Scots. Collection of the edicts of the prætors (edictum perpetuum) com-

menced by the jurist Salvius Julianus.

132-135. Revolt of the Jews on account of the foundation of the colony of Ælia Capitolina (p. 12).

Hadrian had adopted, during a fit of sickness, L. Ælius Verus, and

¹ That is, Arabia Petræa, so called from its capital, Petra, not the whole peninsula of Arabia. Kiepert, Atlas. Ant. Tab. XII.

appointed him Cæsar (p. 147); but as Verus died before him he adopted T. Aurelius Antoninus under the condition that the latter should adopt in place of a son his nephew, the young M. Annius Verus, under the name of Marcus Aurelius, and L. Commodus Verus, the son of the deceased Cæsar, Ælius Verus.

138-161. Antoninus Pius (Titus Aurelius Antoninus Pius).

Peaceable reign, during which the borders were, however, vigorously defended against the attacks of the barbarians. Antoninus had his adopted son, M. Aurelius, educated by philosophers of the Stoic school.

- 161-180. Marcus Aurelius (Marcus Aurelius Antoninus), a wise and active sovereign, highly educated (pupil of Cornelius Fronto), a Stoic philosopher. Until 169 he reigned in common with his brother by adoption, the dissipated Lucius Verus.
- 162-165. War against the Parthians under the command of L. Verus, who, however, soon gave himself up to dissipation in Antiochia, while his legatees carried on the war with success, conquered Artaxata, appointed a king in Armenia, and burned Seleucia and Ctesiphon. A part of Mesopotamia was again made a Roman province.

166. Plague and famine in Italy.

166-180. War with the Marcommani and Quadi. Marcus Aurelius fought with various fortune against the barbarians, who constantly made new attacks. During a short peace with the barbarians, conquest of the rebel Avidius Cassius in Syria, 175. Triumph in Rome, 176. The senate erected an equestrian statue in his honor, which still adorns the Capitol. Before he had succeeded in making the boundaries of the empire along the Danube secure, he died in Vindobona (Vienna). He was succeeded by his degenerate son

180-192. Commodus,

who bought peace of the Germans at the price of a tribute, entrusted the government for the most part to the præfectus prætorio, abandoned himself to his inclination for dissipation and cruelty, and was finally murdered by his intimates.

- 193–284. Imperators for the most part appointed by the soldiers.
- 193. Pertinax, strict and economical, murdered after three months by the prætorians, who placed on the throne in his stead
- 193. Didius Julianus, who, among all competitors, promised them the largest present. The Illyrian legions proclaimed
- 193-211. Septimius Severus,

who was recognized by the senate and maintained himself

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against the other pretenders (Pescennius Niger in the East, Clodius Albinus in Gaul). Successful campaigns in Mesopotamia. Improvements in the administration of justice through the jurist Papinianus. In 208 expedition to Britain against the Scots. Restoration of the Roman wall, which had been partially destroyed. Septimius Severus died in Eboracum (York). His son,

211-217. Caracalla (Antonius Bassianus)

murdered his half-brother and co-regent Geta along with thousands of his adherents, among whom was Papinianus. By the Constitutio Antoniana Roman citizenship was conferred upon all inhabitants of the provinces, for the sake of the higher taxation which could then be imposed.

Systematic plundering of the provinces, unsuccessful wars against the Goths (wrongly called Getæ) in Dacia, cruel treatment of the inhabitants of Alexandria. Plundering expedition against the Parthians.

Murder of Caracalla. His successor,

217. Macrinus,

purchased peace from the Parthians. The soldiers proclaimed

as imperator the seventeen-year-old

218-232. Elagabalus (the form Heliogabalus is a corruption), priest of the sun at Emesa in Syria, who was put forward as the son of Caracalla. He gave himself up to the most infamous debauchery; the government was conducted by his mother and grandmother. He adopted his cousin, the young Bassianus Alexianus, who succeeded to the throne after the murder of Elagabalus by the prætorians, under the name of

222-235. Severus Alexander.

Excellent ruler, advised by the jurists Domitius Ulpianus and Julius Paullus. His strictness with the soldiers led to several

mutinies, in one of which *Ulpianus* was murdered.

226. In consequence of the dissolution of the Parthian monarchy of the Arsacidæ and the foundation of the new Persian empire of the Sassanidæ by Artakshatr (Artaxares, corrupted into Artaxerxes, new Persian, Ardeshîr), a descendant of Sassan, a new war broke out in the East, which Severus Alexander carried on, according to the Roman historian Lampridius, with success; according to the Grecian Herodian, unsuccessfully. At all events there seems to have been an armistice in 233. After the murder of Severus Alexander on the Rhine the soldiers raised to the throne

235-238. Maximinus Thrax,

a Thracian of extraordinary size and strength. Expedition across the Rhine; German townships laid waste. Meanwhile the legions in Africa proclaimed the senator,

237. Gordianus I.,

then eighty years old, imperator. He appointed his son, Gordianus II., co-regent. They were both defeated by the præfect of Mauretania: the son fell in the battle, the father put himself to death.

The senate at Rome, which had already taken sides against Maximinus Thrax, elected the senators Pupienus Maximus and Cælius Balbinus, Augusti, to whom was added, at the people's demand, the thirteen-year-old grandson of Gordianus I. Maximinus Thrax was killed by his own soldiers at the siege of Aquileia. The prætorians at Rome murdered the two imperators appointed by the senate, Pupienus and Balbinus, so that the young

238-244. Gordianus III.

was left sole imperator. A new war with the Persians (241). The young imperator married the daughter of the veteran *Misitheus* (*Timesitheus*), whom he made præfectus prætorio, and whose guidance he followed. After the death of his father-in-law Gordianus was murdered by the new præfectus prætorio,

244-249. Philippus Arabs,

whom he had been obliged to accept as co-regent in 243 at the demand of the soldiers. Peace with Persia. Philippus returned to Rome (became a Christian in secret?).

248. Celebration of the thousandth anniversary of the foundation of Rome.

Revolt of the Mesian and Pannonian legions, which proclaimed one of their officers imperator.

249-251. Decius,

whom Philippus sent to quell the mutiny, was compelled by the legions to assume the title of imperator. He defeated and killed *Philippus* in the battle of *Verona*.

250. General persecution of the Christians.

Martyrdom of Fabianus, bishop of Rome. Decius defeated the Goths, who were plundering Thrace, but fell in battle after he had followed them across the Danube. The legions elected

251-253. Gallus,

who soon had his co-regent, *Hostilianus*, son of Decius, put to death. Destructive pestilence in almost all parts of the empire. Gallus was deposed by the conqueror of the Goths,

253. Æmilianus,

who after four months was killed by the soldiers. He was succeeded by

253-260. Valerianus,

the general of the legions in Gaul and Germania. He appointed his son, Gallienus, co-regent, and both carried on the war with the German bands, who were constantly making new inroads, especially the Franks in Gaul, the Alamanni, who invaded northern Italy but were driven back at Mediolanum, and the Goths on the Danube. Unsuccessful expedition of Valerianus against the Persians; defeated at Edessa, he was captured, and at the age of seventy carried about as the slave of King Artaxerxes. His reign and that of his son,

260-268. Gallienus,

was disturbed by the appearance of a great number of pretenders to the throne, and by the invasions of the barbarians, particularly of the Goths, who came in ships from the Black Sea. Confusion throughout the empire; the so-called "time of the thirty tyrants." Two pretenders only maintained themselves for any length of time, Tetricus in Gaul and Spain, and Odenathus (of Palmyra) in Syria. The latter wrested Mesopotamia from Persia, and was recognized by Gallienus as co-regent for the East. After the murder of Odenathus (267) his consort, Zenobia, ruled in Palmyra. Gallienus laid siege to Mediolanum, which had been occupied by the pretender Aureolus, and was there murdered by contrivance of the latter. Aureolus was put to death by

268-270. Claudius II.,

whom the soldiers raised to the throne. He defeated the Alamanni and the Goths, and was succeeded by

270-275. Aurelianus.

He concluded peace with the Goths by the sacrifice of the province of Dacia. The Danube was henceforward the boundary of the empire; the greater part of the Roman colonists were transported to Mæsia, a part of which was now called Dacia (Aureliana). Aurelian repulsed the Alamanni and Marcomanni, who had made an inroad into Italy (victory on the Metaurus), and began the erection of a new wall around Rome, which included the enlarged imperial city (271, completed in 276). He defeated Zenobia in two battles, at Antiochia and at Edessa, subdued Syria, besieged and destroyed Palmyra, captured Zenobia, and reconquered Egypt (273). Having thus subdued the East, he turned against Tetricus in Gaul, whom he defeated and captured at Chalons (274). Aurelian, rightly called "Restorer of the universal Empire" (Restitutor Orbis), was murdered on an expedition against the Persians. At the request of the army the senate elected the senator

275. Tacitus

imperator. He defeated the Alani, who had invaded Asia Minor, but died after three months. His brother Florianus, who attempted to secure the succession, was defeated by

276–282. Probus,

who drove back the Franks, Burgundians, Alamanni and Vandals, entered Germany, and strengthened the wall between the Rhine and Danube (p. 152). He enrolled a large number of Germans as mercenaries in the Roman army, and employed the soldiers in draining swamps and building canals and roads, for which reason he was murdered by them. The præfectus prætorio,

282-283. Carus,

succeeded. He appointed his sons Carinus and Numerianus Cæsars, and afterwards Augusti, conquered the Sarmatians, and per-

ished (struck by lightning?) on an expedition against the Persians, after having captured Ctesiphon.

284. Numerianus,

who had accompanied his father to the East, was murdered by his father-in-law.

284. Carinus,

who had remained in the West, fought at first with success against

284-305. Diocletianus,

who had been proclaimed imperator by the soldiers. Carinus was ultimately murdered by his own troops. Diocletian, who created an oriental court at *Nicomedia* in *Bithynia*, and thence ruled the *East*, entrusted the administration of affairs in the

285. West to the brave Maximianus, as his co-regent or Augustus, who took up his residence for the most part in Mediolanum

(Milan).

293. Diocletian appointed two more Casars: 1. Constantius Chlorus, who was obliged to divorce his wife Helena and marry the step-daughter of Maximianus, received the government of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, and dwelt commonly in Augusta Trevirorum (Trier), while Maximianus was appointed to the government of Italy and Africa. 2. Galerius, who became Diocletian's son-in-law, and received the government of Illyricum, including Macedonia and Greece.

296. Diocletian subdued the revolt of Egypt. Constantius suppressed a revolt in Britain. Galerius fought against the Persians, unsuccessfully in the first year, but in the second (297) he gained an important victory, and extended the frontiers to the Tigris again. Maximianus suppressed an insurrection in Africa. Con-

stantius defeated the Alamanni.

303. General persecution of the Christians, which Constantius discouraged in his province.

305. Diocletian abdicated and retired to Salonæ in Dalmatia, after

he had obliged Maximianus also to resign his dignity.

Constantius and Galerius were raised to Augusti. At the desire of Galerius, the claims of *Constantinus*, son of Constantius, and of *Maxentius*, son of Maximianus, being passed over,

Severus and Maximinus were appointed Cæsars, the first receiv-

ing Italy and Africa, the second Syria and Egypt.

306. After the death of Constantius in Britain, his son (by Helena), Constantius, assumed the administration of his father's provinces, Gaul, Spain, and Britain, with the title of Cæsar. He fought successfully with the Franks and Bructeri. Meanwhile the prætorians at Rome chose Maxentius imperator, whereupon his father, Maximianus, reassumed the dignity he had unwillingly resigned. The empire had thus six rulers, three Augusti and three Cæsars.

307. The Cæsar Severus, having been created Augustus by Galeat rius, went to Italy to attack Maxentius, but was deserted by as theldiers and put to death at Ravenna. Galerius appointed Licin-

ius co-regent and Augustus in his stead, and Constantine therefore assumed the same title, so that there were now six Augusti in the empire.

310. In the struggle that followed, the aged Maximianus was captured in Massilia and put to death by command of Constantine.

Galerius died of disease (311).

· War between Maxentius and Constantine. The latter issued edicts in favor of the Christians. Maxentius was defeated at Turin

312. and at Saxa rubra, four miles from Rome, by Constantine (Hoc signo vinces!), and perished by drowning as he attempted to cross the Tiber.

Constantine became the protector of the Christians, but re-

mained up to his death a catechumen.

313. Alliance between Constantine and Licinius, who married Constantine's sister. Constantine took the field against the Franks, Licinius against Maximinus, who was defeated, and killed himself in Tarsus; so that now

313-323. Constantine and Licinius were the only rulers in the empire, the former in the West, the latter in the East. In 314, however, they were embroiled in conflict. Licinius, defeated in two encounters, was obliged to cede *Illyricum*, *Macedonia*, and *Achaia* to Constantine.

323. Second war between Constantine and Licinius. The latter, defeated at Adrianople and Chalcedon, surrendered in Nicomedia,

and was executed (324) by Constantine's command.

323-337. Constantine (the Great) sole ruler.

Christianity recognized by the State and favored at the

expense of paganism.

325. First general (œcumenic) Council of the Church at Nicæa, in Bithynia. Arianism, i. e. the doctrine of Arius ("Αρειος), formerly a presbyter in Alexandria, according to which Christ was not of the same nature, but of like nature only (δμοιούσιος), with God the Father, was rejected, and the doctrine of Athanasius of Alexandria, according to which Christ was of the same nature (δμοούσιους, consubstantialis) with God the Father, was declared a dogma of the Church by the Symbolum Nicænum.

330. Constantine selected Byzantium (Nova Roma, Constantinopolis) for the capital. The empire was redistricted. The four great prefectures, Oriens, Illyricum orientale, Italia, Gallia, were divided into 13 dioceses, these into 116 provinces. New hierarchy of officials, 7 superior court offices. Council of state (consistorium prin-

cipis). New arrangement of the taxes.

Cruelty of Constantine in his family. His eldest son, Crispus, and one of his nephews executed through the plots of his wife, Fausta, who

was herself put to death.

Constantine, before his death, divided the administration of the empire among his three sons as Augusti, and two nephews as Casars. After his death, in Bithynia, the two Casars were put to death by Constantius. The three sons of Constantine redivided the empire at Constantinople.

¹ Kiepert, Atlas Antiquus, Tab. XII.

- 337-340. Constantinus II. received the West (the prefectures of *Italia*, *Gallia*, and a part of *Africa*).
- 337-361. Constantius received the East, the prefecture Oriens.
- 337-350. Constans received the prefectures of *Illyricum* orientale and a part of Africa.

Constantius II. attacked his brother Constant, and fell at Aquileia. In 350 Constant also died, so that Constantius, after the conquest of the usurper Magnentius (353), again united the whole empire. Julianus, a cousin of the emperor, who was appointed Cæsar, fought successfully with the Alamanni and Ripuarian Franks, and assigned the Salian Franks lands in northern Gaul. Constantius died on an expedition against

361-363. Julianus,

who had been proclaimed Augustus by the legions. He is known as the apostate (apostata), because he was an adherent of the heathen philosophy and abandoned Christianity, hoping to bring about a reaction in favor of the heathen cult, which he wished restored in a purified form. Julianus defeated the Alamanni and the Franks, restored the fortresses which had been erected against them along the frontier, and defeated the Persians at Ctesiphon, but died of a wound on his return. The soldiers raised the Christian

363-364. Jovianus,

to the throne. He ceded the greater part of Mesopotamia to the Persians. Christianity reinstated in the privileges which Constantine had granted. After the sudden death of *Jovianus* the legions raised

364-375. Valentinianus I.

to the throne. He appointed as co-regent first his brother,

364-378. Valens,

an Arian, who governed the East from Constantinople, and afterwards, for the West, his son,

367-383. Gratianus,

who, upon his father's death, acknowledged as co-regent for the administration of the West his four-year-old half-brother,

375-392. Valentinian II.,

who had been proclaimed imperator by the soldiers.

375. Beginning of the migrations of the Teutonic tribes (p. 170).

After the death of Valens at Adrianople in battle against the West Goths, Gratianus created the heathen

379–395. Theodosius

co-regent, and entrusted him with the administration of the East. Theodosius became a Christian after his recovery from a severe illness, fought successfully against the West Goths, but was obliged to accept them as allies (fæderati) in their abodes in Mæsia and Thrace. Gratianus fell in battle against the imperator proclaimed by the legions in Britain,

383-388. Clemens Maximus,

whom Theodosius recognized as co-regent under the condition that he should leave Italy in the hands of the young Valentinian II. In 387 Maximus drove Valentinian from Italy. He fled to Theodosius, who, returning with him, captured Clemens Maximus at Aquileia, and executed him.

390. Insurrection in Thessalonica, cruelly punished by Theodosius (7000 executions). On this account bishop Ambrosius of Milan, eight months later, excluded the emperor from Christian com-

munion, until he had done penance.

392. After the murder of Valentinian II. by Arbogastes, and after the new imperator, Eugenius, whom Arbogastes set up, had

394. fallen at Aquileia in battle with Theodosius, and Arbogastes had put himself to death, the whole empire was, for the last time, reunited under

394–**395.** Theodosius.

After his death the division of administration into an eastern and a western section, which had existed for a hundred years, became a permanent division of the empire.

- 395-1453. Arcadius received the Eastern empire, also called the Byzantine or Grecian empire. Imperial vicar, Rufinus. Capital Byzantium or Constantinople. The
- 395-476. Western empire, capital Rome, Ravenna imperial residence after 402, under
- 395-423. Honorius.

Guardian and chancellor, the Vandal Stilico, murdered in 408 by command of Honorius to whom he had been defamed. After the death of Honorius the usurper

424. Joannes reigned for a short time, but was finally overthrown with the assistance of the Eastern empire and the sixyear-old

425-455. Valentinian III.

made imperator, the government being conducted at first by his mother *Placida*, sister of Honorius, in his name. Valentinian was murdered by

455. Petronius Maximus,

who married Eudoxia, widow of Valentinian, but was killed shortly before the capture of Rome by the Vandals (p. 173).

The throne was usurped by

455-556. Avitus

who was soon deposed by Recimir, a military leader of the German mercenaries in the Roman army. Recimir placed upon the throne

457-461. Majorianus,

whom he afterwards deposed in favor of

461-465. Libius Severus,

after whose deposition (?)

465-467. Recimir conducted the government without the pretence of an imperial figure-head until 467 when he placed

467-472. Anthemius

upon the throne, who was succeeded by

472. Olybrius.

Recimir and his sovereign dying this year, the Eastern court interposed and placed

473. Glycerius

on the throne of the West, who was succeeded by

473-475. Julius Nepos,

also by appointment of the emperor of the East. In 475 Orestes, a leader among the mercenaries, placed his son

475-476. Romulus Augustulus

upon the throne, who, combining in his name that of Rome's first king and first emperor, became the last of the imperial line in the West, being deposed by

476. Odovaker ((Odoacer),

military leader of the *Heruli* and *Rugii*, who made himself ruler (not king) of Italy, and was recognized by the Eastern emperor **Zeno** as patricius of Rome and prefect of Italy (p. 173).

§ 4. TEUTONS. Aryan.

Geography: The Teutonic race has occupied three regions in

Europe.

I. Germany comprises Central Europe, the slope from the Alps N. to the sea. It may be roughly bounded as follows: N. German Ocean, Baltic; E. a vague line indicated by the Vistula, and the Carpathian Mts.; S. the Alps; W. the Rhine. This region falls into three physical divisions: 1. The broad and lofty chain of the Alps divided into the Swiss Alps on the W. and the Tyrolese Alps on the E., whose deep valleys fostered the rise of small independent communities (p. 245). Mont Blanc (14,748 ft.), Monte Rosa, Jungfrau, etc., Lake Geneva, Lake Constance, Lake of Lucerne (Vierwaldstättersee), etc. 2. A broad upland extending two thirds of the way from the Alps to the sea, and embracing the present Würtemberg, Bavaria, Bohemia, Sax-

ony, Saxon duchies, Hesse, etc. 3. A low plain reaching to the sea, and including the present Holland, Hanover, Prussia, etc. Modern Germany comprises 2 and 3. The peninsula of Denmark has belonged,

in historic times, politically to Scandinavia and Germany.

Through the middle of Germany a range of low mountains extends from S.E. to N.W. from the Jura in France to the Carpathians in Hungary. This range, known to the Romans as Hercynia silva, includes the Jura, Vosges, Schwarzwald (Black Forest) Taunus, Thüringer Wald, Erz Gebirge, Riesen Gebirge, Sudeten, and forms an arc whose convex side is turned toward the W. and N. The valley of the Danube S. of this range, and the depression on its northern base extending from the Lahn to the middle Elbe (the old commercial route between Frankfort o. M. and Leipsic), are the two natural roads which give the East access to western Europe. Other mountain groups: Bohemian Forest, forming the S.E. border of Bohemia, Harz, N. of the Frankfort road. Rivers: S. the Danube, flowing into the Black Sea; N. the Rhine, with its branches Neckar, Main, etc., Ems, Weser, Elbe, flowing into the German Ocean; Oder, Vistula flowing into the Baltic.

The Roman provinces Rætia, Vindelicia, Noricum, Pannonia, occupied the Alps and the southern bank of the Danube. Germania superior and inferior were Gallic provinces on the left bank of the Upper and Lower Rhine. To Germany proper, which was never a province of the empire, the Romans applied the name, Germania magna.

II. Scandinavia, the great peninsula jutting E. and S. from the north of Europe. It falls into two divisions: 1. A rugged, mountainous region on the W., with deeply indented coasts (Norway). 2. On the E. a less mountainous region with numerous rivers flowing into the Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia (Sweden). The southern part of Scandinavia was known to the Romans under the

III. The British Isles. See pp. 36 and 176.

name Scandia, and was thought to be an island.

Ethnology: I. According to the theory of the Asiatic origin of the Aryans, the Teutonic migration followed the Celtic and preceded that of the Slavs. The Teutons, or Germans, appear to have taken the northern route and to have first settled along the coast, on the plain, and in the northern portion of the plateau. The valley of the Danube and Bohemia were early occupied by Celtic tribes, and it was only gradually that these were dispossessed by the invading Germans. Whether the Teutons entered Germany in two bands, is not clear; certain it is that from a very early time a radical difference has existed in language and customs among the Germans, whereby they are divided into High Germans, inhabiting the inland plateau, and Low Germans, dwelling on the coast.

The Romans divided the Germans (Germani)¹ either into two sections, the Suevi and the non-Suevi (Cæsar), or into three branches which were named after the sons of "Mannus, the son of the earth-born god Tuisco," Istavones, Inguavones, Herminones. The former division

¹ The origin of this name is doubtful. See the disputed passage in **Tacitus**, Germania, 2.

is thought to correspond to that of High (Suevi) and Low Germans; the latter answers territorially to the fusions of tribes which later formed the Franks, Saxons, and Thuringians. Of the separate tribes may be mentioned: I. Non-Suevi: Istævones, Ubii, Usipii, Tencterii, Sugambri, Marsi, on the right bank of the Rhine where we find later the Alamanni and Ripuarian Franks; Inguævones, Batavians, Frisians, Saxons, Chauci, Cimbri, along the coast from the Rhine to the right bank of the Elbe. II. Suevi, Chatti, in Hessen, Cherusci on the Upper Weser, Hermunduri in Thuringia, extending as far as the Danube (these three were included under the Herminones), Marcomanni in Bohemia (see below), Quadi on the Danube, Semnones, the centre of what seems to have been a very loose political organization of the Suevi, between the Elbe and Oder, Langobardi, Rugii in the northeast toward the Vistula, Burgundiones on the Oder, Guttones (later Goths) extending beyond the Vistula, Vandali, Alani (?).

In Denmark dwelt the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, until the fifth century A. D., when a large part of these tribes migrated to England,

and their place was taken by Danes from the islands on the E.

II. Scandinavia was occupied by Finnish tribes (Sitones), from the N., and by invading Germans from the S. at an unknown time: Gautæ (Goths), Sucones (Swedes) in Sweden; Northmen in Norway.

III. British Isles. See pp. 36 and 176.

Religion: The religion of the Teutonic race was a pantheistic nature worship. I. Germans: Beyond the unsatisfactory passages in Cæsar (Bell. Gall. VI. 21) and Tacitus (Germania 9, 10, etc.), all our knowledge of the ancient religion of the Germans before the introduction of Roman civilization and of Christianity is derived by inference from later sources, or from the younger but much fuller mythology of Scandinavia. Among the great gods (Ases) of the Germans were: Woden (Odin in the north), the "all-father"; Donar (Thor), his son, at once the storm-god, and the god of agriculture; Zio or Thiu (Tyr) also a son of Woden, god of war; Fro (Freyr), god of love; Paltar (Baldur), god of justice; Nerthus or Hertha (Frau Bertha), the earth; Frauwa (Freya), sister of Fro; Friga (Fria), wife of Woden; Helia (Hel) goddess of the lower regions. Below the Ases were the Giants, the Normes or fates, the Walkyres or messengers of the gods. In the realm of lower mythology the German imagination was remarkably fertile. cobolds, elves, nixes, abounded, and still live in childrens' tales, and the many popular fancies which the modern study of folk lore has revealed.

The Germans had no corporation of priests like that of the Druids, though the priests and priestesses of certain divinities stood in high honor. Their worship consisted in the repetition of formal invocations, and in the offering of sacrifices, prisoners being often immolated to Woods and trees were held in special reverence and often devoted to the performance of worship beneath their branches. Certain days were set apart for the worship of certain deities, whose names have come down to us in the names of the days of the week. Tuesday (Thiu'sdag), Wednesday (Woden'sdag), Thursday (Thor's-

dag, Donnerstag), Friday (Freya'sdag). Some of the customs of

these recurring festivities were afterwards impressed into the service of Christianity. Such was the decoration of trees with flower-wreaths and candles, now a part of Christmas rites, and such the colored eggs in a "hare's nest," now an Easter custom, but originally an offering to some heathen divinity. Divinations by flight of birds,

neighing of horses, throwing sticks, etc.

II. Scandinavia: The faith of the northern Teutons was one of the most remarkable of the heathen religions, and one of the last in Europe to yield to Christianity. After being long transmitted by hearsay the northern mythology was first committed to writing in the poem of the *Elder Edda* in the twelfth, or as some scholars hold, in the thirteenth century. The poem is supplemented by the commentary known as the *Younger Edda*, written by Snorri Sturluson

(1178-1241).

In the beginning existed the All-Father. In chaos (Ginungagap) he created two worlds, Niftheim, the ice-world, in the north, and Muspelheim, the fire-world, where sat Surt with the flaming sword, in the south. Midway of the two their opposing influences produced the giant Ymer, who became the progenitor of the evil race of frost-giants (Hrymthurses). Ymer was fed by the milk of the cow Audhumbra, who licked the ice-blocks and set free the god Bure, to whom a giant's daughter bore three sons, Odin, Vile, and Ve. These three slew Ymer, in the deluge of whose blood perished all the frost-giants, save two, who became the ancestors of a new race of frost-giants. Of the body of Ymer the gods formed the universe, the earth, the sky and the stars. Dwarfs were the earliest inhabitants of the earth. Afterwards the first man and woman were created from two trees.

The universe thus formed comprised nine worlds. Of these the highest was Muspelheim, in whose highest part was Gimle, the abode of the blest. Below Muspelheim was Asaheim, or Godheim, where dwelt the great gods (Asa) in their capital, Asgard, with its lofty halls, the fairest of which was Valhal, the hall of Odin. Below Godheim was Mannaheim, or Midgard, the earth, a disk of land surrounded by the ocean and held together by the Midgard-serpent which lay at the bottom of the ocean, its tail between its jaws. Across the ocean was Jotunheim, the world of the giants, whose one purpose was the annoyance of mankind, on which account they were perpetually at war with man's defenders, the gods of Godheim. Below the earth was Helheim, the world of the dead, and, lowest of all, Niftheim, with the fountain Hvergelmer. Bifroust, the bridge between Gjallar-bridge between Helheim, Jotun-Godheim and Mannaheim. heim and the worlds above.

These worlds were, in the fancy of the north, surrounded and united by a mighty ash-tree, Yggdrasil, with three roots reaching to Godheim, Jotunheim, and Niftheim.

The great gods were Ödin and his sons: Thor, Vali, Haimdall, Vidar, Baldur, Braga, Tyr, Hödur, besides Aller, Forsete, and Njörd,

In Germany the tree is simply decorated, the presents to be exchanged are piled around the support of the tree or placed on an adjacent table. The exchange of gifts was not a part of the old German custom, but is perhaps a survival of a practice observed by the Romans during the Saturnalia (p. 85).

Freyr, sea gods, and Loke. Of the goddesses the chief were Frigga, wife of Odin, Freyja, goddess of love, Saga, goddess of history. Above all the gods were the Nornes, or fates. Below the gods were elves, trolls, witches, etc. Exploits of the gods. Especially famous were the dealings of Thor with the giants. After the creation followed a golden age when all was well in Godheim, but after a time evil crept in personified as Loke. Death of Baldur, killed through the contrivance of Loke by his brother Hödur with a sprig of mistletoe, Frigga having bound all other created things not to hurt Baldur. Loke's children were the Fenris-wolf, chained until the coming of Ragnarok, the Midgard-serpent, and Hel. Binding of Loke. Finally comes the end of the world, Ragnarok, the Twilight of the Gods. Battle of the Asa-gods with the Midgard-serpent, Loke, and the Fenris-wolf, who have broken their chains. The good and the bad alike perish in the combat. Surt consumes Yggdrasil and the whole world in flames. Vidar, Vale, Hödur, Baldur, and the sons of Thor survive. A new earth and a new heaven are created.

According to the belief of the Northmen, all good men and all who died in battle crossed over the bridge Bifroust (the rainbow) to Valhal, where they spent their days feasting and fighting, until Ragnarok when they passed to Gimle. Cowards and evil-doers were

punished in Helheim, and after Ragnarok in Naostrand.1

Civilization: It is probable that the Germans had not completed the transition from a pastoral to an agricultural people, when they arrived in central Europe. They were certainly in a low stage of civilization when they became known to the Romans, a stage not unlike that reached by the most advanced of the American Indians, the Iroquois. Cities were unknown to them; they seem to have settled for the most part each individual apart, each tribe separated from the other by a broad strip of mark-land.² Orders: 1. Nobles, who derived their descent from the gods, but were entitled to no political privileges because of their nobility. 2. Freemen, that is, land-owners, men born to arms, the work upon whose land was done by their bondmen; out of this class developed later the lower nobility. Freedmen (liti, lassen), or half-freemen, renters bound to military service, but excluded from the ownership of land, from the popular assembly, and from the courts. 4. Servants or bondmen, in part serfs bound to the soil (glebæ adscripti), in part actual slaves. latter two classes formed the majority of the population.

Custom of comradeship (gasindi leudes), out of which the feudal system developed after the occupation of the Roman provinces and the division of land among the faithful (fideles), and under the influence of the Christian religion. Feudal superior (suzerain). Vassen, vassals, or men; fief (feudum or beneficium), held on tenure of

service, distinct from allodium, property in fee simple.

Whoever desires to become involved in that most hopeless of all historical questions, the social and political organization of the ancient Germans, is referred to Waitz, Verfassungsgeschichte, where references will be found.

¹ The relation of these myths to Christianity, the extent to which they have been influenced by acquaintance with the Scriptures, is a subject of active inquiry, but nothing can as yet be said to be definitely determined. See Bugge, Entstehung der Nördischen Götter.

History: I. The date of the first arrival of Teutons in Europe is wholly unknown. Pytheas of Massalia, who visited the amber coasts of the Baltic about 350 B. C., met with German tribes. From that time on only the bare introduction of the word Germani in the Roman annals for 225 B. C. hints at any knowledge of the Teutons until the close of the second century B. C., when the tribes of the Cimbri and Teutones left their homes at the base of the Danish peninsula (driven from them by a flood?) and, after humiliating the Roman arms in Gaul, found their death on the fields of Aquæ Sextiæ and Vercellæ (102, 101, B. C., p. 127). The terrors of the invasion died away, but the Romans did not come again into contact with the Germans until Cæsar's invasion of Gaul brought on a contest with the Suevian prince Ariovistus which ended in the latter's defeat (58 B. C.). Subjugation of the Germans on the left bank of the Rhine. Cæsar's two

expeditions across the Rhine (58, 55, p. 139).

Under Augustus, systematic attempt to subjugate Germania magna. Conquest of Rætia and Noricum by Drusus (15), of Pannonia and Vindelicia. Expeditions of Drusus from the Rhine: 1. With the fleet on the Ems (12); 2. Against the Cherusci on the Weser, foundation of the citadel Aliso (11); 3. Along the Main to the Werra and Elbe (9). Legend of the "white woman." Death of Drusus. His successor Tiberius, reduced all the tribes between the Rhine and the Elbe to submission and began the active construction of fortresses and colonies. The folly of Tiberius' successor, Varus, alienated the Germans and led to revolt. Under Arminius, one of the nobles of the Cherusci, three Roman legions were annihilated in the three days' battle in the Teutoburg Forest 1 (9 A. D.?). Augustus gave up the hope of subjugating the Germans, and later emperors did not revive it. Expeditions of Germanicus in revenge for the Teutoburg massacre, 14, 15, 16. Thenceforward the Romans were contented with maintaining their borders against the free tribes, and with colonizing the land south of the Main and the Danube. Line of fortifications from Aschaffenburg, on the Main, to Regensburg, on the Danube (Pfahlgraben, Teufelsmauer). Along this line Roman soldiers were settled on land for the rent of which they paid a tenth of the produce, hence agri decumates. Foundation of colonies: Curia Rætorum (Chur) in Rætia; Juvenum (Salsburg) in Noricum; Vindobonum (Vienna) in Pannonia; Augustà Vindelicorum (Augsburg), Castra regina (Regensburg) in Vindelicia. Active intercourse between Rome and Germany. Germans served both as privates and as officers in the Roman

Of the internal affairs of the free Germans we are but scantily informed. In the first century B. C. a portion of the Hermunduri, the Marcomanni, had invaded Bohemia, driven out the Celtic Boii (who took refuge in Pannonia, where they were gradually exterminated by the Roman arms) and established a state which, under Marbod (Maroboduus), grew to formidable proportions. Intended expedition of Tiberius against Marbod frustrated by the Pannonian revolt (8). Feuds between the German tribes fostered by the Romans. Arminius expelled Marbod from his kingdom, but was himself mur-

¹ The locality has not been satisfactorily made out.

dered under suspicion of aiming at supreme power. The Cherusci, Hermunduri and Bructeri were nearly exterminated in internecine strife. Revolt of the Batavians under Civilis (p. 151). War of

Marcus Aurelius with the Marcomanni (p. 154).

In process of time a change came over the political organization of the Germans. The multitude of small tribes disappeared and we find in their stead a smaller number of more extensive tribes. At the same time the Slavs began to press upon the eastern Germans and urge them westward. The Germans increased in power and population, and became better and better trained in the arts of war and political intrigue as they came more and more into intimate connection with Rome. The provincial armies were largely German; German officers rose to high distinction and great influence in Rome. So Rome grew weaker and her foes stronger until at least the impulse of the invading Huns in the east set all the tribes in motion.

II. Scandinavia: Northern annalists present an historical Odin, probably no less mythical than Odin the god. According to these tales (which, like some other mythical history, may have greater historical value than the present credits them with), Odin was the leader of the Asas who dwelt in Asia between the Black Sea and the Caspian. Attracted to the falling fortunes of Mithridates, he was driven from his kingdom by Pompeius. He conducted the Asas westward to Scandinavia where he subdued Denmark, Sweden and Norway, and gave these countries to his sons; Denmark to Skjold, Sweden to Yngave, Norway to Sæming. Odin ended his days in Sweden.

The history of Scandinavia as far as ascertained belongs to the next period, and will be found on page 207.

III. British Isles. For the history of the Teutonic invasion of England see p. 176.

§ 5. SLAVS AND LITHUANIANS. Aryan.

These closely related peoples belong to the northern branch of the European Aryans, and their westward migration followed that of the Teutons.

The Slavs were known to the late Roman geographers under the name Venedæ (hence Wends) as inhabiting the region beyond the Vistula, which bore the general name of Sarmatia, from the nomadic Sarmatians who inhabited it, interspersed with the Slavs, from whom

they differed in language and descent.

In the fifth century A. D. the Slavs occupied the country between the Baltic and the Black Sea, between the Carpathians and the Don. They dwelt in the steppes of Russia as far north as Novgorod on the Volga, and their westernmost limit lay between the Vistula and the Oder. In the sixth century the Slavs began to extend themselves south and west, a movement which resulted in the permanent occupation of Bohemia and of the Balkan peninsula, while their settlement extended east to Tyrol. In 623 A. D. temporary formation of a Slavic monarchy of great extent under Samo in Bohemia, which endured thirty-five years. The conquests of the Slavs came to an end with the seventh century, and the separate kingdoms of Poland, Bohemia, Russia, were gradually formed.

Of the religion of the Slavs little is known with certainty, owing to the diversity of nomenclature among the various divisions of this wide-spread people, and to the lack of trustworthy authorities. Among the Slavs of the Baltic, who had a class of priests and built temples, occur the names Svatovit or Svantovit, god of light or of the air, with a temple at Arkona; Triglath, the three-headed god, worshipped in Pomerania (Stettin); Radigost, Rugevit or Ranovit (in Rügen), Jarovit, all gods of war; Zcerneboh, "the black god," an evil deity. The Russians worshipped Khors, Volos, or Veles, god of the herds (St. Blaise); Koupalo, god of the harvest; Jarylo, god of generation; Stribog, god of the winds; Lada, goddess of love and passion. The gods were worshipped by offerings of fruit and animals, seldom by human sacrifices.

The Slavs were a pastoral and agricultural people. All inhabitants of the same district were kinsmen, bearing a common name, living under the rule of an elected elder, and holding property in common. A union of such districts formed a tribe; a union of tribes formed a people.

The Lithuanians play no part in history before the thirteenth century. In the wider sense the name includes the Letts and the ancient Prussians, who were known to the Romans as Æstui. In the narrower sense it is limited to the inhabitants of the region between

the Memel and the Finnish Esthonians.

II. MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE MIGRATIONS OF THE NORTHERN TRIBES TO THE TREATY OF VERDUN¹ (375–843).

§ 1. MIGRATIONS OF THE NORTHERN PEOPLES.

Habitations of the Germanic tribes in the fourth century A. D.

Alani, whose German descent is, however, not certain, on the lower Volga; East Goths in southern Russia; West Goths in Dacia (eastern Hungary, Roumania); Vandals in Pannonia (southwestern Hungary); Suevi in Moravia, Bohemia, and Bavaria; Burgundians on the Neckar and the Rhine, with Worms as their capital (compare p. 164); Alamanni (or Alemanni) on the Rhine, between the Main and the Alps, partly along the Roman boundary wall (agri decumates); Ripuarian Franks on both sides of the lower Rhine (capital at Colonia Agrip-pina); Salic Franks on the mouths of the Rhine (in Meergau, "district on the sea," the Meruwe, hence Merowingians;) 2 Saxons from the Elbe almost to the Rhine; Thuringians south of the Saxons; Langobards on the lower Elbe.

The peoples which appear in the so-called migrations of the peoples were generally heterogeneous armed bands under the command of a

leader or king chosen for his military prowess (*Heerkönig*).

Beginning of the migration of the Teutonic **375.** tribes.

Period of migrations and invasions.

The Huns, a Mongolian race, crossed Volga.

The Huns, joined by the Alani, whom they had defeated, fell upon the East Goths (king Ermanaric or Hermanric, of the family of the Amaei), and, in union with these, upon the West Goths. That part of the West Gothic race which had remained heathen took refuge in the Carpathians; the Christians, and those who

¹ Assmann, Geschichte des Mittelalters, 2d edition, by E. Meyer.

² According to other scholars the name was a patronymic.

⁸ A Gothic bishop (Theophilus) took part in the council of Nicæa (325).

Wulfila (Ulfilas), bishop of the West Goths (348–388), translator of the Bible;

cf. Dahn, Die Könige der Germanen, VI. 41.

were just on the point of accepting Christianity (in the form of Arianism), were allotted habitations in *Mæsia* by the emperor *Valens*. Disputes with the Roman officials at the passage of the Danube (*Fridigern*, leader of the West Goths) led to war, and the Goths advanced, ravaging as they went.

378. Battle of Adrianople. Valens defeated and slain. His successor, *Theodosius*, made peace with the West Goths, who, for pay and the gift of a dwelling-place, were to protect the

frontiers of the Roman Empire as fæderati.

Alaric, leader of the West Goths, belonging to the family of the Balthi (i. e. "bold") enraged at not receiving pay from Arcadius, laid waste Macedonia, Illyria, and Greece (395), and advanced into Peloponnesus. Stilicho, magister utriusque militiæ of the Western Empire (p. 161), came to the assistance of the Eastern court. Landing with an army at Corinth he surrounded the West Goths, but allowed them to escape. Alaric went to Illyria, and compelled the court at Byzantium to recognize him as dux in Illyricum orientale.

400 (401?). Alaric's first invasion of Italy. After a victory at Aquileia he crossed the Po. Stilicho hastened from Rætia to

meet him.

402. Drawn battle at Pollentia. Alaric made another attempt to advance southward, but was compelled to return to Illyria by disease, hunger, and desertion.

404-406. German bands under Radagais invaded Italy, but were defeated by Stilicho at Fæsulæ, and annihilated by continued

fighting and by hunger.

406-409. Bands of Vandals, Suevi, and Alani left the regions along the Danube, crossed the Rhine, sustained great loss in contests with the Franks, and finally (409) invaded Spain.

Poundation of Teutonic monarchies in Roman territory.

The Salian Franks gradually occupied northern Gaul. The Burgundians settled (406-413) on the middle Rhine (Worms).

408. Stilicho murdered by the command of the emperor Honorius

(p. 161).

Alaric's second invasion of Italy. He besieged Rome, but retired on receipt of a ransom. The court at Ravenna refusing to grant Alaric's request that the Goths should be assigned lands for a permanent settlement in northern Italy, Alaric again advanced upon Rome, and forced the senate to appoint Attalus, prefect of the city, emperor. Alaric besieged Honorius in Ravenna without success, quarrelled with Attalus, whom he deposed, and advanced for the third time upon Rome.

- 410. Capture and sack of Rome by Alaric. Alaric went to Lower Italy with the intention of crossing to Sicily, and thence to Africa, but died at the close of 410, at *Cosenza*, and was buried beneath the Busento.
- 410-415. Athaulf, brother of Alaric's wife, led the West Goths to Gaul, though whether in fulfilment of a treaty with Honorius

to resist the Romans, who had forced their way into the province, or of his own accord, is uncertain. He carried with him the sister of Honorius, who was detained as a hostage in the Gothic camp, and married her in Narbonne (414). The proposed treaty with the imperial court was not, however, concluded. Athaulf, hard pressed by the imperial general Constantius, went to Spain, conquered Barcelona, and was murdered (415). After the murder of his successor, Sigric,

415-419. Walja became king of the West Goths. He concluded a treaty with Honorius, and fought for Rome against Vandals, Alani, and Suevi. He received a grant of southern Gaul under Roman supremacy. Walja was the founder of the

415-507. West Gothic (Visigothic) kingdom of Tolosa, with its capital at *Tolosa* (Toulouse), which soon became

independent.1

- 429. King Genseric (Geiseric) conducted the Vandals and a portion of the Alani to Africa, at the invitation, as the story goes, of the Roman governor Bonifacius. The latter was slandered at court by Aetius, and accused of treason, but, making his peace with Placidia, the mother and guardian of the Emperor Valentinian III., he fought unsuccessfully against Genseric, who, after a short peace with the Romans (435), conquered Carthage (439).
- 429-534. Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa. Capital, Carthage (S. Augustinus, bishop of Hippo Regius † 430).

440. The Vandals, having created a great naval power, plundered

the coasts of Sicily and lower Italy, by their fleets.

443. The Burgundians settled on the upper Rhône and on the Saône; the Alamanni extended themselves over the Roman province of *Germania superior* (hence called Alsace), and also occupied a part of Switzerland, east of the Burgundian

territory.

449. The Angles and Saxons, long known as pirates along the coasts of the German Ocean, and having settlements on the coast of Flanders (litus Saxonicum⁸), were called in by the Britons, after the withdrawal of the Roman legions from Britain, to assist them in repelling the robber tribes of the northern mountains, the Picts and Scots. The Saxons and Angles crossed to Britain (according to tradition, the first bands were led by Hengist and Horsa), and founded in the course of time 8 states: Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia, Deira, Bernicia. The last two were later united to form Northumbria (north of the Humber); hence the number of states was then 7 (heptarchy).

The Britons for the most part migrated to Wales, and to Armonia in Gaul, which was hence called Bretagne (Brittany).

For the details of the settlements, see p. 176.

¹ Cf. Dahn, Die Könige der Germanen, Pt. V.

This is denied by the more recent authorities. See, however, p. 38.

- 451. Attila (Etzel, "Scourge of God"), king of the Huns (in his train armed bands of Germanic peoples, whom he had subjected, East Goths, Gepidæ, etc.), invaded and ravaged Gaul. He besieged Orléans in vain.
 - Battle on the Catalaunian fields (near Châlons-sur-Marne; the battle-field itself was at Troyes). Attila defeated by Aetius, the Roman governor of the small district around Lutetia, which alone remained in possession of the Romans, and the West Goths (with the aid of auxiliaries from the Franks, Burgundians, etc.). Theodoric I., king of the West Goths, fell in the battle.
- 452. Attila went to Italy, destroyed Aquileia. Venice founded by Italian fugitives. Rome saved by Bishop Leo (?). After the death of Attila (453) the monarchy of the Huns fell asunder.

Not only the German tribes which had been subjugated by the Huns became free (the Gepidæ were the first to shake off the yoke); the Slavic peoples also regained their liberty. During the following centuries these latter tribes extended themselves throughout the eastern parts of Germany.

455. Rome, after the murder of Valentinian III., by Maximus, plundered for 14 days by the Vandals, who had been called in by Eudoxia, widow of Valentinian.

The Vandals controlled the entire northern coast of Africa as far as Cyrene, and the islands of the western Mediterranean.

476. Odovakar (Odoacer), leader of Herulian and other German bands in the pay of Rome, became ruler in Italy, after the deposition of the last emperor of the West (p. 162).

There was no conquest of the western empire by Odovakar, but the line of Emperors in the West came to an end in consequence of domestic revolution, and thereby the last bond was broken which had united the provinces, long since occupied by the barbarians, who, however, had usually nominally recognized the supremacy of the Imperator or Augustus in Ravenna.

- 486. Battle of Soissons. The Merowingian Chlodwig (Chlodowech, Clovis, 481-511), leader of the Salic Franks, defeated the Roman governor Syagrius, the successor of Aëtius.
 - Kingdom of the Franks in northern Gaul. Chlodwig by cruelty and deceit made himself sole ruler of all the Franks.
- 496. Victory of Chlodwig over the Alamanni (not at Tolbiacum or Zülpich). Conversion of Chlodwig and the Franks to Catholic Christianity. Chlodwig baptized by Remigius,

¹ Assmann, I. 53.

- bishop of Rheims (Mitis depone colla Sigamber, adora quod incendisti, incende quod adorasti).
- 493. Theodoric the Great (493-526), after having defeated Odovakar, with whom he had been at war since 489, founded the
- 493-555. Kingdom of the East Goths (Ostrogoths) in Italy.

Residence Ravenna, at times Verona, hence in the hero romances: Dietrich von Bern. The historian Cassiodorus, Boëthius (de consolatione philosophiæ), and Symmachus, executed (525).

500. Chlodwig, king of the Franks, attacked the Burgundians, to revenge himself on *Gundobad*, the uncle of his wife *Chlotilde*, for the murder of her father, defeated them at *Dijon*, and made them tributary to the Franks.

507. Chlodwig defeated the West Goths at Vouillé, or Voulon, on the Clain, a branch of the Vienne, in the vicinity of

Poitiers.

The West Goths, assisted by the East Goths, defeated the Franks at Arles, and maintained their control of Septimania (the coast be-

tween the Rhône and Pyrenees).

Theodoric the Great united a part of southern Gaul to the kingdom of the East Goths, and undertook the government of that part which the West Goths retained, as well as of the Spanish possessions of that people, as the guardian of their king, his grandson Amalaric, a minor (son of Alaric II.), and retained it till his death (526), which first severed the connection of the two Gothic kingdoms.

- 507 (526)-711. West Gothic (Visigothic) Kingdom in Spain, with its capital at Toledo.
- 526. After the death of Theodoric, his daughter Amalasuntha became regent in the East Gothic kingdom for her son Athalaric. The latter died young (534), and his mother associated with herself as co-regent her cousin Theodahad (Theodat), who murdered her, thereby causing

535-555. War between the East Goths and the Eastern Empire.

533-534. Belisarius, general of Justinian, Emperor of the East (527-565), destroyed the Vandal power in Africa.

Decay of the kingdom of the Vandals after the death of Genseric (477). Hilderic deposed by Gelimer, whom Belisarius captured.

Brilliant campaign of Belisarius against Vitiges, king of the

540. East Goths, whom he carried captive to Constantinople.

Belisarius, after he had declined the Italian crown, offered him by the East Goths, was dispatched by Justinian against the *Persians*.

During his absence the East Goths, under their new king Totila, reconquered the greater part of Italy.

¹ Dahn, Die Könige d. Germ. V. 109.

- 544-549. Belisarius, sent again to Italy, fought with varying success, but with increasing fame, against Totila. He recaptured Rome. After Belisarius had been again recalled, Rome was a second time taken by Totila.
- 552. Narses, the successor of Belisarius, defeated Totila at Taginæ or Busta Gallorum. Totila fell on the field.
- 553. The last king of the East Goths, Teja, fell in the battle of Mons lactarius (near Vesuvius).
- 555. Narses destroyed the kingdom of the East Goths. Exarchate.
- 568-774. Kingdom of the Langobards (Lombards) in Italy. Alboin.

Alboin, with the help of the Avars (on the lower Danube), destroyed the kingdom of the Gepidæ and married Rosamunda, the daughter of the king of the Gepidæ. At the head of his Langobards, with the aid of Saxons and Slavs, he conquered Italy as far south as the Tiber. Capital of the kingdom of the Langobards, Pavia (Papia). The Langobards conquered almost the entire Exarchate of the Byzantines, who retained only Venice, Ravenna, Naples, and Calabria. Rome (ducatus Romæ) became gradually independent.

After Alboin had been murdered by Rosamund, because, as the story goes, he attempted, during a carouse, to force her to drink from her father's skull, his successor Cleph pushed his conquests to lower Italy, where independent Langobardian duchies, like Beneventum, were established. After an interregnum of ten years his son Authari was recognized as king. Through the influence of his wife, Theodelinde, a Bavarian princess, the conversion of the Langobards to Christianity was begun.

Among the successors of Authari the following deserve mention: Rothari, in whose reign the famous code of laws of the Langobards appeared (644); Grimoald, duke of Beneventum, who violently usurped the throne and completed the conversion of the Langobards; Liutprand (717-744), who made further additions to the code of the Langobards; and Aistulf (750-756), whose attempt to conquer

Rome was frustrated by Pipin, king of the Franks (p. 184).

585. Kingdom of the Suevi in Spain united with that of the West Goths, who, like all the barbarians that had adopted Arianism, were converted to the Roman Catholic church (587).

590-604. Gregory I. (the Great), bishop of Rome. Beginning of the Papacy (Pápa Πάππας, i. e. father, formerly the title of every Christian bishop, soon applied exclusively to the successor of St. Peter).

§ 2. TEUTONIC KINGDOMS IN BRITAIN.

From the first invasions to the supremacy of Ecgberht 449 (?)-828.

Roman Britain.

Political divisions: 1. Britannia prima, S. of the Thames and the Severn (Cantii, Regni, Belgæ, Atrebates, Durotriges, Dumnonii). 2. Britannia secunda, Wales (Silures, Demetæ, Ordovices). 3. Flavia Cæsariensis, between the Thames, Severn, and Humber (Trinobantes, Caytieuchlani, Iceni, Dobuni, Coritavi, Cornavii). 4. Maxima Cæsariensis, between the Humber and the Tyne (Parisii, Brigantes). 5. Valentia, between the Tyne and the Forth (Otadeni, Gadeni, Selgovæ, Novantæ).

Fortifications: In the N. wall of Agricola (81) or Lollius Urbicus, between the Friths of Forth and Clyde; wall of Hadrian (122) between the Solway Frith and a point on the opposite coast near Newcastle-on-Tyne (replaced in the third century by the wall of Severus). In the S. the strongholds Burgh Castle, Reculver, Richborough, Lymne, Pevensey, along the Saxon shore. (Compare the Cinque Ports.)

Towns: Camulodunum (Colchester), Glevum (Gloucester), Lindum (Lincoln), Deva (Chester), Eburacum (York), Londinium (London).

Roads: Watling Street from Kent to the Forth, Hermin Street from Sussex coast to Humber, Foss Way from Cornwall to Lincoln, Ikenild Street from Caistor to Dorchester.

The Teutonic Invaders.

After the withdrawal of the Roman legions (about 410) the Britons suffered severely from the ravages of the Scots (Irish) on the W. and the Picts (Gaels) on the N., which they resisted unaided for several decades. About the middle of the fifth century the Britons were overwhelmed from another quarter. Bands of Low Germans from the coast of Europe, west of the Baltic, whose piratical expeditions had long been the terror of southeastern Britain, began to settle in the island and conquer themselves homes and kingdoms. That they came at first to aid the Britons against their other foes is not impossible; but little faith, however, can be placed in the story of Vortigern and Rowena.

The invaders came principally from three Teutonic tribes: Jutes, inhabiting the northern part of Denmark (Jutland); Angles or Engle from modern Schleswig, south of the Jutes; Saxons, a more numerous people, living south of Schleswig along the Elbe and westward on the coast. Of the Jutes and Saxons only a portion emigrated; the Angles seem to have gone en masse.

Religion: The new settlers were pagans, sharing the faith of the

¹ Green. The more usual but incorrect routes assigned these roads are: Watling, Kent to Cardigan Bay; Hermin, St. Davids to Southampton; Foss, Cornwall to Lincoln; Ikenild, St. Davids to Tynemouth. See Scarth, Roman Britain, p. 116.

continental Germans (p. 164). Each man was priest in his household, and political rulers exercised also priestly functions for the regions under their control.

Civilization: The invaders were rude warriors, cultivators of the soil, but fond of the hunt and still more fond of war. They settled in villages, the dwellers in each village being kinsmen, who often gave their family name to the place of their abode. In each village all were united by a bond of mutual protection and responsibility. Around the house-lots and garden-plots, which were for the most part practically private property, extended the common land, the "mark," comprising tilled land, pasture and woodland, which also served to isolate one village from another. The people were divided into four orders: athel, nobles; ceorl, free landowners; laets, tenants owing service to their landlords; slaves, generally captives taken in war. Whether either of the invading tribes were under kings at home is unknown; their leaders during the invasion were war-chiefs, ealdormen, whose power was frequently prolonged and concentrated by the military necessities of their new conditions, until it became royal and they took the title of king. Each village had its governor and its council, the latter composed of all freemen in the village; each aggregate of villages (the hundred) had its governor and council; the aggregate of hundreds which made up the tribe had its king and its great council (witan), which elected the king, generally out of some one noble family, and was consulted by him. The witan was in theory composed of all freemen in the tribe, but it soon became practically limited to the more wealthy and powerful among them. Each ealdorman, perhaps every man of note, had a personal following of companions (thegns), who had devoted themselves to his service and were supported by him. The development of monarchy caused a corresponding development of this institution. Powerful men were proud to be thegas of the king, and thus the number and power of the king's military household constantly increased.

Jutes (Kent).

449 (?). Landing of the chiefs Hengist and Horsa in Thanet (then an island). Gradual conquest of the country between the *Thames* and the *Andredsweald* (p. 36). East and West Kent.

South Saxons (Sussex).

- 477. Ælle, a Saxon ealderman, with his sons Cymen, Wlencing, and Cissa, landed at Cissanceaster and conquered the region S. of the Andredsweald.
- 491. Storm of Anderida. Massacre of the inhabitants.

1 The date is variously given, but 449 is the year most commonly accepted. I have followed throughout the conservative scholars. The ultra-skepticism which would limit our knowledge of the 5th and 6th centuries in Britain to what can be guessed from the condition of things there in the 7th, 8th, and 9th centuries seems to me to be based on hypercriticism.

West Saxons (Wessex).

A more important settlement was that begun by the Saxons, under the ealdormen

495. Cerdic and Cynric, on the southern coast, W. of the Andredsweald. The formation of the country directed their line of extension W. and N., thus bringing them into contact with the great body of western Cymry.

517. Cerdic and Cynric assumed the royal title.

At the beginning of the second decade of the sixth century the Saxon advance was so sternly checked that fifty years elapsed before it was again resumed. Battle of Mons Badonicus (520). The Cymric traditions of Arthur, king of the Silures, to whom this repulse of the pagan invaders is attributed, are probably founded in truth.

Cynric (534-556) conquered modern Berkshire. Ceawlin (556-591 [3]) raised Wessex to such power that later years entitled him the second Bretwalda of Britain (the first being Ælle). The meaning

of this title is not clear. By the

577. Battle of Deorham Ceawlin extended his power to the Severn and separated the Cymry of Cornwall (Devraint) from those of West Wales.

East Saxons (Essex).

During the latter half of the fifth century Saxons settled north of the Thames. Sack of Camulodunum. Establishment of a small kingdom under the shadow of the great forest which then reached to the Wash (Ercenwin, 527?).

Middle Saxons (Middlesex).

A small division of the East Saxons, dwelling about London.

East Angles (East Anglia).

While the East Saxons were making their settlements, Angles were occupying the region to the N., between the sea, the great fens about the Wash (Uffa, 575?), and the forest. Norfolk, Suffolk.

North Angles (Northumbria).

Early in the sixth century settlements of Angles north of the Humber. Conquest of central Yorkshire.

Bernicia. At the same time other Angles were settling along the Frith of Forth, where they may have found a Jutish colony already established. Under Ida, "the flame bearer," as the Cymry **547.** called him, the Angles pushed their conquests to the Esk.2 Bernicia thus comprised the Lowlands of Scotland, a region which still contains the purest type of the Teutonic conquerors of Britain. Saxon and Gael.

attributed to Arthur.

¹ The northern Cymry seem also to have had traditions of an Arthur. Later fugitives to Bretagne carried the memory of Arthur with them; there his name was connected with the French legend of the Holy Grail, and woven into the romances which make up the Arthurian cycle. ² The stubborn resistance of the Cymry here as well as in the south has been

Middle Angles (Mercia).

Early in the sixth century scattered bands of Angles occupied the present counties of Lincoln, Nottingham, Leicester, Warwick, and Northampton. The small kingdoms and lordships thus founded (Lindesfaras, Gainas, Magesætas, Hwiccas) were at a later time

united in the great kingdom of Mercia (Cridda, 582?).

Thus Britain south of the Firth at the close of the third quarter of the sixth century was divided between Cymry and Teutons by a line drawn nearly N. and S. midway of the breadth of the land. Teuton and Celt, pagan and Christian, faced one another throughout the length of the island. As far as it went, the conquest was thorough. Not that the Cymry were exterminated; many remained within the Saxon lines, and traces of Celtic, and of still older blood, are not infrequent in the most Teutonic parts of England to-day. Though the subjugated Cymry, however, might retain their Celtic blood, in all else they were soon assimilated with the conquerors. Temporary halt in the work of conquest.

Wars of the invaders among themselves.

588. Formation of the kingdom of Northumbria by the enforced union of Bernicia and Deira under Æthelric, king of Bernicia.

590-616. Supremacy of Æthelbert, king of Kent, afterwards called the third Bretwalda, over Essex, East Anglia, Middle Britain. His wife was the Catholic Christian princess Bertha, daughter of Charibert, king of the Franks.

597. Arrival of Augustine, legate of Pope Gregory the Great. Conversion of Kent. Quarrel between the British church and Augustine (date of Easter, form of the tonsure). Conversion of the East Saxons. Laws of Æthelbert. An attempt to convert the East Angles led to the revolt and

About 610-617. Supremacy of Rædwald, of East Anglia, over Middle Britain. He was afterwards called the fourth Bretwalda. In the N. Æthelfrith of Northumbria defeated the Cymry of Strathclyde in the great

off Strathclyde from Wales, as Wales had been severed from Cornwall by the battle of Deorham (p. 178). Æthelfrith defeated and slain in the battle of the *Idle* by *Rædwald*, who had taken up the claims of *Eadwine*, son of Ælla, formerly king of Deira.

617-633. Supremacy of Eadwine of Northumbria, called the fifth Bretwalda. His overlordship was more comprehensive than that of any of his predecessors, since, after the conquest of Wessex (526), it included all Teutonic Britain except Kent. Conversion of Northumbria (627). Revolt of the Mercians under Penda (627-655), who, in alliance with Cadwallon of Wales, defeated Eadwine in the battle of Heathfield (633). Death of Eadwine.

633-655. Supremacy of Penda of Mercia over Middle Britain, Essex, and East Anglia.

- 635. Defeat of Cadwallon by Oswald of Bernicia, in the battle of the *Hevenfeld*. Conquest of Deira.
- 635-642. Supremacy of Oswald of Northumbria, afterwards called the sixth Bretwalda, over Wessex, Sussex, Essex, Kent. Conversion of Northumbria (where many people had relapsed into paganism) by Irish (not Roman) missionaries. Conversion of Wessex. In the contest over East Anglia Oswald was defeated by Penda, and slain in the
- 642. Battle of the Maserfeld. Penda's sovereignty extended over Wessex, East Anglia, Deira.

655. Battle of the Winwæd. Penda defeated by Oswiu, brother of Oswald, and his successor in Bernicia, and slain.

655-659. Supremacy of Oswiu of Northumbria, called the seventh Bretwalda, over all Teutonic Britain except Wessex, Kent, and Sussex.

659. Revolt of Mercia under Wulfhere. Henceforward the kings of

Northumbria were sovereigns of merely local power.

Rivalry between the Irish missionaries and Rome. A council convened by Oswiu, decided in favor of Rome. Theodore of Tarsus, archbishop of Canterbury (609), undertook the organization of the English church.

688-726. Ine, king of Wessex. Conquest of Kent (694). Wars with the Cyrmy of Cornwall (710). Laws of Ine, the oldest West Saxon code. Abdication of Ine (726).

Willibrod, missionary to the Frisians. Boniface (Winfrith), apostle of the Germans. Wilfrith, bishop of York. Cuthbert, of Lindisfarne. Benedict Biscop, abbot of Wearmouth. Bæda (672–735); Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum.

733-752. Supremacy of Æthelbald of Mercia over all England S. of the Humber.

752. Battle of Burford (Oxfordshire). Defeat of Æthelbald of Mercia by the West Saxon, Cuthred.

Henceforward Teutonic Britain remained divided between the three great kingdoms, Northumbria, Wessex, Mercia.

756. Strathclyde subjected to Northumbria by Eadberht.

755–794. Offa, king of Mercia.

Conquest of Oxfordshire from Wessex (777?). Conquest of the Welsh kingdom of Powys, W. of the Severn. Offa's Dyke from the mouth of the Wye to that of the Dee. Friendship between Offa and Charles the Great. Laws of Offa.

789. First recorded landing of Northmen in Britain on the coast of

802-837. Ecgberht, king of Wessex, being elected to succeed Beorhtric after thirteen years' exile spent in the kingdom of the West Franks. Cornwall made tributary. Defeat of Beornwulf of Mercia, at the battle of Ellandune (825). Submission of all England S. of the Thames, and of Essex. Ecgberht overlord of Mercia and Northumbria (828). Submission of Wales (828).

All England south of the Forth, with the possible exception of Strathclyde, united under Ecgberht.

834. The Northmen ravaged Sheppey. Ecgberht defeated by the Danes (825).

836. Battle of Hengestesdun. Victory of Ecgberht over Welsh and Danes. Death of Ecgberht (837).

§ 3. THE KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS UNDER THE MEROWIN-GIANS.

511. After the death of Chlodwig the first division of the kingdom of the Franks. According to this division, which was not strictly territorial, the four sons of Chlodwig, Theoderic I. (Thierry) (511-533). Chlodomer (Chlodomir, 511-524), Childebert I. (511-558), Chlotar I. (Clotaire 511-561) ruled the kingdom from the four court-camps of Metz, Orléans, Paris and Soissons.

530-532. The kingdom of the Thuringians conquered by the eldest of the brothers (Theoderic). The two younger brothers sub-

jugated the Burgundians.

The northern part of Thuringia, as far south as the Unstrut, fell to the Saxons, the allies of the Franks in the war. The southern part (to the Danube) became Frankish territory, but the name of Franconia was given to the region south of the Thuringian forest; the district between the Unstrut, the Thuringian forest, and the Saale continued to be called Thuringia.

Acquisition of Provence (536) and the supremacy over Swabia and

Bavaria on the fall of the kingdom of the East Goths.

558-561. The whole Frankish kingdom again united under Chlotar I., who outlived his three brothers. After his death

561. A second division of the kingdom among the grandsons of Chlodwig, Guntram (561-593), Charibert I. (561-567), Sigibert I. (561-567), and Chilperic I. (561-584), into four, later (567) into three parts: Austrasia, with the capital at Rheims, and a population chiefly German; Neustria, with the capital at Soissons; Burgundy, with Orléans as capital; in both of which later divisions the mass of the population was Romano-Celtic or Romance.¹

Family divisions and wars full of horrors. Feud of Brunhilde (Brunichildis) of Austrasia, a daughter of Athanagild, king of the Visigoths, and Fredegunde (Fredegundis) of Neustria († 597), slave, and afterwards wife, of Chilperic I.

613. Second union of the entire kingdom of the Franks under Chlotar II. of Neustria, great-grandson of Chlodwig. Brunhilde captured, tortured, and dragged to death by a wild horse.

Origin of the power of the majores domus (Hausmeier, mayors of

¹ Charibert received the territory around Paris, but after his early death this was equally divided among his brothers, and the triple division alone was henceforth of importance. [Trans.]

the palace), who were at first superintendents of the royal household, afterwards leaders of the feudal retainers (leudes). The race of the Pipins (afterwards called Carolingians), of pure German blood, acquired an hereditary claim to the office of major domus, in Austrasia first, and afterwards in Neustria.

622-678. Third division of the kingdom of the Franks (interrupted, however, by several temporary unions) into the two parts into

which it had meanwhile separated:

1. Austrasia (principally German), separated by the Schelde from 2. Neustria (Romance, northern France to the Loire, not reckoning Bretagne which was independent) and Burgundy. The duchies of Aquitania and Vasconia (Guyenne and Gascogne), between the Loire and the Pyrenees, were almost independent.

§ 4. MOHAMMED (MAHOMET) AND THE CALIPHATE.

622. Mohammed's flight (Hegira) from Mecca to Medina.

571, of the family of Hashem, a merchant, husband of the wealthy Chadija, acquainted from his journeys with the Jewish and the Christian religions, proclaimed himself a prophet among the tribe of the Koreishites, Islam (i. e. a submission to the will of God consequent on belief). One God (Allah) and Mohammed his prophet. Moslems (the believers). Victories of Mohammed in Arabia (629); preparation for conquests in Syria. Mahommed died 632.

Caliphs (i. e. successors):

632-634. Abu-bekr, father-in-law of the prophet. Collection of the Koran (Qúran), later enlarged by the transcription of an oral tradition, the Soona. Separation of the believers into Soonees, who recognized this addition, and Sheeah, who rejected it, and regarded Ali, the son-in-law of Mohammed, as his only rightful successor. Wars with the Eastern Empire and the Persians.

634-644. Omar, founder of the Arabian supremacy in the East. He assumed the title of *Emir-al-Mumenin* ("Prince of the faithful"), which was afterwards borne by all the caliphs. Conquest of Syria (Damascus 635), Palestine, Phœnicia. Destruction of the empire of the Sassanidæ (the New Persians) by the battle of Nehavend (642). Conquest of Egypt by Omar's general Amroo. Capture of Alexandria.

644-656. Othmann (Osman). Conquest of northern Africa. Capture of Rhodes. Murder of Othman during an insurrection.

656-661. Ali, husband of Fatima, Mohammed's daughter, not universally recognized. Muawwiyah proclaims himself caliph in Syria. After bloody civil wars and after the murder of Ali, the Sooneite

661-750. Ommiads obtained the caliphate.

661-680. Muawwiyah I., great-grandson of Omeyyah. He transferred the residence of the caliphs from Medina to Damascus.

¹ Bonnell, Die Anfänge des Karolingischen Hauses, 1866.

The caliphate was made hereditary.

About 700 the governor Musa completed the conquest of Byzantine Africa as far as the Atlantic Ocean. The Berbers, who accepted Islam, together with the inhabitants of Punic, Greek, and Roman descent, became amalgamated with the Arabians under the name of Moors. Tarik, one of Musa's generals, crossed from northern Africa to Spain, and in the

711. Battle of Xeres de la Frontera (plains of the Guadal-quivir) destroyed the kingdom of the Visigoths.

From this time on there coëxisted in Spain: 1. the province of the caliphate, which became, at a later date (756), the separate caliphate of *Cordova*; 2. the Christian kingdom of *Asturia*, founded by *Pelagius*, afterwards the kingdom of *Leon*.

The Arabians penetrated the passes in the country of the Basques and invaded Gaul. Here a limit was set to their conquests by the

732. Battle between Tours and Poitiers, where they were defeated by Charles Martel.

Under the last of the Ommiads the caliphate reached its greatest extent, embracing southwestern Asia from the Gulf of Arabia and the Indus to the Mediterranean and the Caucasus, the entire northern coast of Africa, a great part of the Spanish peninsula, and in southern France the county of Narbona, besides Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles.

In the caliphate declining vigor; constant wars with the followers of Ali. Abul Abbas, great-grandson of an uncle of the prophet, overthrew the last Ommiad caliph, Merwan II.

750-1258. Rule of the Abbasides. Residence at Bagdad. Treacherous murder of all the Ommiad princes (90). One only,

Abd-er-Rahman, escaped to Spain, and founded there the 756. caliphate of Cordova.

- § 5. KINGDOM OF THE FRANKS UNDER THE CAROLINGIANS.
- 687. Pipin of Heristal, major domus (mayor of the palace) of Austrasia, became by the victory of Testri (not far from St. Quentin) over the major domus of Soissons (Neustria) sole major domus of the whole kingdom of the Franks, and called himself in future dux et princeps Francorum.

Eudes, duke of Aquitaine, defeated by the Arabian invaders, sought help from Charles, the son and successor of the major domus Pipin of Heristal.

732. Battle between Tours and Poitiers. Victory of

¹ From him comes the name Gibel or Jebel-al-Tarik (Gibraltar), i. e. mountain of Tarik, near which he landed. It would appear that the story of Tarik's having been summoned by the Visigothic count Julian, is mythical. Cf. Dahn, Kön. d. Germ. V. 227.

Charles Martel (major domus 714-741) over the Arabs.

A. D.

751. With Pipin the Small (741-768), Charles Martel's son, the Carolingians became kings of the Franks.

The last king of the Merowingian line (les rois fainéants), Childeric III., was deposed with the consent of Pope Zacharias and placed in a monastery. Pipin was raised upon the shield on the field of Mars at Soissons, as king of the Franks. In 754 Pope Stephen III., who had come to France to seek help, anointed Pipin and his sons Charles and Karlmann as kings of the Franks. For the future Pipin styled himself "king by the grace of God."

In requital of this service Pipin drove back Aistulf, king of the Langobards, who was threatening the Pope (p. 175). Gift of the Exarchate of Ravenna and the Pentapolis (Ancona, Sinigaglia, Fano, Pesaro, Rimini), the territory of Bologna and Ferrara, to the Pope, and thereby the first foundation of the Papal States. Pipin patricius

of Rome, that city not being included in the gift to the Pope.2

Bonifacius (the Anglo-Saxon Benedictine monk Winfried, named Bonifacius by Pope Gregory II.), the apostle of the Germans (about 680-754). He preached Christianity in the country of the East Franks, in Thuringia, Hesse, and Friesland. Bishop since 722, archbishop since 732 without a settled bishopric, he brought all newly founded bishoprics and monasteries into strict dependence upon the Papal chair. In 742 Concilium Germanicum, recognition of the Pope as head of the Church. In 748 Bonifacius became the first archbishop of Mainz; in 754 he was killed by the heathen Friesians.

768–814. Charles the Great (Charlemagne), since the death of his brother Karlmann (771), sole ruler. Karlmann's sons took refuge with Desiderius, king of the Langobards, whose daughter Charles had married, but afterwards rejected.

773–774. Destruction of the kingdom of the Langobards.

The Pope having refused to crown the sons of Karlmann, Desiderius occupied the Pentapolis and threatened Rome. Charles came to the assistance of the Pope, ex officio, as patricius of Rome. Capture of Pavia after a six months' siege, during which Charles had visited Rome and renewed his alliance with the Pope. Desiderius placed in a monastery. Charles, king of Italy, by which is meant the kingdom of the Langobards, northern and central Italy. The larger part of southern Italy remained in the possession of the Eastern Empire.

772–804. War with the Saxons.

The country of the Saxons was divided as follows. Westphalia, on the Sieg, Ruhr, and Lippe, and on both sides of the Ems;

ter, I. p. 216.

² See, however, Oelsner, Jahrb. d. fränk. Reichs unter König Pippin, Chap. IX. p. 129 foll.

¹ See the proof in G. Richter, Annalen d. deutschen Geschichte im Mittelal-

Engern, on both sides of the Weser as far as the Leine; Eastphalia, as far as the Elbe; Northalbingia, N. of the lower Elbe to the Eider.

The Saxon war was resolved upon in the assembly (May-field) at

Worms (772).

772. Capture of the Eresburg, destruction of the Irminsul. 775. Capture of Sigiburg. Subjugation of the Saxons W. of the Elbe. The Saxons destroyed the Eresburg, but were subjugated anew. 776-777. First May-field in the land of the Saxons, at Paderborn. New insurrection of the Saxons upon receipt of the news of Charles's defeat in the Pyrenees, 778; subdued by the army of the east Franks and Alamanni. 779, Charles gained a victory at Bocholt on the Aa. 780, Submission of the Saxons; acceptance of Christianity.

After a new and general revolt headed by Widukind or Wittekind, and a defeat of the Frankish army, Charles took the field in person with success. 782, Slaughter of 4500 Saxons on the Aller. 783, A new and terrible uprising, the result of this massacre. Charles victorious first at *Detmold*, then on the *Hase*. 785, After a two years'

resistance Wittekind submitted and became a Christian.

778. Wars of Charles in Spain.

Conquest of Saragossa. Return by Roncevaux, and defeat of the Frankish rearguard. Death of the hero Roland, margrave of the Breton coast, a pretended nephew of Charles, whose deeds are celebrated in a series of romances. The Spanish mark 1 was of later foundation, and was strengthened by Ludwig, son of Charles (800).

788. Abolition of the duchy of the Bajuvariæ (Bavarians), after the second revolt of duke *Tassilo*.

Wars with the Northmen (the common name of the Germans of the Scandinavian north), and with the Slavs. Charles defeated the Wiltzi and advanced to the Peene (789).

- 791-799. War with the Avars (who had aided Tassilo, duke of Bavaria) conducted principally by Charles' son Pipin. 796. Storm of the King's Ring (the chief camp of the Avars) between the Danube and the Theiss. The country between the Ems and the Raab was annexed to the Frankish empire and occupied by German colonists, especially by Bavarians. (Soon after, complete ruin of the kingdom of the Avars.)
- 800. Charles revived the office of Emperor of the West. Pope Leo III., ill-treated by the relatives of his predecessor in an insurrection, and expelled from the city (799), sought Charles' camp at Paderborn. Restored by Charles to Rome, he crowned him emperor on Christmas-day, 800.
- 793-804. New revolts among the Saxons particularly in the N., led to a war with the Danes, with whom the Saxons had taken refuge. Gottfried, king of Denmark, invaded the Frankish mark; his ships harassed the coasts of the German Ocean.
- 1 Mark: a strip of land on the border of a country, where the military power was especially well kept up, under a Markgraf (border-count), who was responsible for the safety of the border. TRANS.

808. The Danes, defeated by Charles, the eldest son of the emperor, retired beyond the Eider.

810. The emperor was obliged to take the field against Gottfried in person. The Danish king was murdered by his own servants. Peace with his successors. Saxony north of the Elbe remained a part of the Frankish kingdom. Boundaries of the kingdom: Ebro, Raab,

Eider, Garigliano. The Wends were again subjugated.

Charles resided in Aachen in Austrasia (Aix-la-Chapelle) principally on account of its warm springs, or in the County Palatine on the Rhine, at Ingelheim, or in Nymwegen. Capitularii, imperial rescripts. Assemblies composed of all men of rank, both churchmen and laymen ("in quo placito generalitas universorum maiorum, tam clericorum quam laicorum conveniebat"). Levy of troops (Heerban). Governors of counties (Gaugrafen), counts of the border districts (comites marchiæ, Markgrafen), imperial messengers (missi regis, Sendgrafen), who made periodical circuits in different parts of the empire, heard complaints and reported the same with other observations and suggestions to the emperor. The Anglo-Saxon scholar Alcuin, the Langobard Paul, son of Warnefrid (Paulus Diaconus), called to the imperial court, where intellectual pursuits were favored and shared by the emperor. Schools for the education of the clergy, at Tours and Paris. Einhard (Eginhard), the favorite secretary of Charles (author of the Vita Caroli Imperatoris). Charles the Great became the centre of the most important series of romances of the Middle Age.

786-809. In the East Charles found a friend and admirer in Haroun-al-Rashid, Caliph of Bagdad. His reign and that of his son Mamun cover the most fruitful period of science, art, and manufactures among the Arabs.

The older sons of Charles the Great Charles and Pinin dring

The elder sons of Charles the Great, Charles and Pipin, dying before their father, he was succeeded by his youngest son,

814-840. Ludwig the Pious. (Louis le Débonnaire).

Ludwig's nephew, Bernhard, Pipin's son, according to Charles' decree, king of Italy under the supremacy of his uncle, rebelled against the latter, was defeated, captured, and killed.

Ludwig had 4 sons: Lothar, Pipin, Ludwig, Charles the Bald (the latter by Judith, his second wife, of the noble Alamannian family of the Welfs). In 829 Lewis substituted a new division of the empire, whereby his youngest son, Karl, received Alamannia and the royal title for the division made in 817, under which Lothar held the larger part of the empire and the imperial crown, Pipin had Aquitania, and Ludwig, Bavaria. The three elder sons at once revolted, and civil war broke out. On the Field of Lies, near Colmar in Alsace, Ludwig, the father, was deserted by his troops (833). He was taken prisoner (public penance in the church at Soissons), but soon released by his repentant son Ludwig, and replaced upon the throne (834). Pipin died in 838, and his share of the empire was divided between Lothar and Charles, which caused a new rebellion on the part of Ludwig. In 840 Ludwig the Pious died on an island in the Rhine, near Ingelheim. Ludwig and Charles in alliance defeated Lothar at Fontanetum (Fontenaille or Fontenay?) in 841.

- 843. Treaty of Verdun. Division of the empire among Aug. the brothers as follows:
 - 1. Lothar: Centre of the Frankish lands, i. e. Austrasia, Friesland, the Alamannian lands on the left bank of the Rhine, the greater part of Burgundy, Provence, a part of Languedoc; in general, a region bounded by the Schelde, Meuse, Saône, Rhône, in the west, by the Rhine and Alps in the east, and Frankish Italy.

2. Ludwig the German: The eastern part of the Frankish lands, i. e. all those parts of the empire lying on the right bank of the Rhine, except Friesland; the diocese of *Mainz*, *Worms*, and *Speier* on the left bank (in general a region lying between the

Rhine and the Elbe).

3. Charles the Bald: The western part of the Frankish lands, i. e. Neustria, Aquitania, the northern part of Burgundy, Septi-

mania, the Spanish Mark.

Lothar retained the imperial dignity which his father had given him. His kingdom, which lacked natural boundaries and comprised various nationalities, contained within itself the germ of rapid dissolution.

The Treaty of Verdun was originally merely a family contract, made without regard to national differences. In Ludwig's kingdom, however, the German element was in the majority; in that of Charles the Romance element prevailed. Thus there developed, in the course of the following centuries, from the East Frankish element the German, from the West Frankish the French nationality. The East Franks called their language, in contrast to the Latin used by the educated clergy, the deutsche, i. e. the language of the people, and gradually (since Henry I.?) those who spoke Deutsche came to be called Deutsche.¹

§ 6. NEW PERSIAN EMPIRE OF THE SASSANIDÆ.² Aryan. 226-641.

226-240. Artaxerxes I. (Artahshatr),

² Rawlinson, Seventh Great Uriental Monarchy.

son, not of Sasan, but of Papak, probably king of Persia proper, revolted against Artabanus, the last king of Parthia (p. 30), whom he defeated and slew in the battle of Hormuz.

Contest of Artaxerxes with the Arsacid kings of Bactria and Armenia. The claim preferred by Artaxerxes to all Asia as far as the Ægean involved him in a war with Rome. Defeat of Alexander Severus, followed by peace. Subjugation of Armenia. Restoration of the religion of Zoroaster. Collection of the text of the Zend Avesta. Artaxerxes was succeeded by his son,

240-271. Sapor I. (Shahpuhri).

Wars with Rome. I. (241-244.) The Romans were suc-

¹ V. Giesebrecht, Gesch. d. deutschen Kaiserzeit, I. 4th ed. p. 149.

cessful under Gordianus, but his successor, Philippus, concluded peace with Sapor, leaving Armenia in his hands, but retaining Mesopotamia. II. (258-260.) A glorious war for Persia. Nisibis, Edessa, Antioch fell into their hands, and the Roman emperor Valerianus was captured and remained a prisoner until his death (265 or 266). Defeat of Persians by Odenathus of Palmyra (p. 157). Erection of many buildings and engineering works in Persia. Mani, or Manes, a teacher of a new form of religion compounded of Christianity and Zoroasterianism (Manicheism), expelled from Persia.

Sapor was succeeded by his son, Hormisdas I. (Auhrmazdi), who reigned one year and ten days (271-272) and was followed by his brother, Varahran I. (272-275). Execution of Mani. Aid sent to Zenobia (p. 157). The murder of Aurelianus (275) put an end to his expedition against Varahran, who was succeeded in the same year by his son Varahran II. (275-292?). His reign is marked chiefly by the war with Rome (283), which was closed by the mysterious death of Carus (283-284). Revolt of Tiridates of Armenia, aided by Rome. Varahran III., son of Varahran III., reigned four months, and was followed by his brother,

292-301. Narses,

who after defeating his brother and rival, Hormisdas, drove Tiridates from Armenia (296). War with Rome. Galerius, at first unsuccessful in Mesopotamia, finally defeated Narses. Peace (297): 1. Persia ceded five provinces beyond the Tigris to Rome. 2. The Tigris recognized as the general boundary between Persia and Rome. 3. Cession of a large part of Media to Armenia. 4. Persia surrendered to Rome her supremacy over Iberia (Georgia).

Abdication of Narses and accession of his son, Hormisdas II. (301–309), whose reign covers little of importance. At his death the nobles set aside his son Hormisdas, and conferred the crown upon his

unborn child. A boy was born, who received the name

309-379 (?). Sapor II.

During his minority the country suffered from invasions of the Arabs, but on arriving at his seventeenth year Sapor assumed the government, and inflicted a terrible punishment on Arabia. Persecution of Christians (about 325). First war with Rome (337-350). Defeat of Constantius at Singara (348). Nisibis in Mesopotamia thrice besieged by Sapor in vain (338, 340, 350). War of Sapor with Tatar tribes in the E. (351-359) and extension of Persian power in this direction. Armenia went over to Rome. Second war with Rome (359-363). Invasion of Syria. Capture of Amida after a desperate resistance. Julianus, emperor of Rome, invaded Persia, and defeated the Persians before Ctesiphon (362), but immediately began a retreat, in the course of which he died. His successor, Jovian, concluded peace with Sapor for thirty years (363): 1. Restoration of the five provinces ceded by Narses. 2. Surrender of Nisibis and Singara to 3. Rome to give up all connection with Armenia. Conquest of Armenia by Sapor. Third war with Rome (371-376), carried on without energy and concluded by an obscure peace.

¹ Rawlinson, Seventh Monarchy, 128 foll., discusses the conditions.

The brilliant reign of Sapor was followed by a time of quiet. Artaxerxes II. (379-383.) Sapor III. (383-388.) Division of Armenia between Persia and Rome, — Persia receiving the larger part. Varahran IV. (388-399) deposed Chosroës, king of Persian Armenia, and placed his own brother on the throne (391). Varahran was murdered during a mutiny, and succeeded by his son Isdigerd I. (Izdikerti) (399-419 [420]), whose peaceful reign is remarkable for little, except a persecution of the Christians in Persia and Armenia. He was succeeded by his son,

419 (420)-440. Varahran V.,

who, having put down Chosroës, a pretender to the throne, renewed the persecution of the Christians, and began war with Rome. Meeting with no success, he concluded peace (422), and agreed to stop the persecution. (Charity of Acacius, bishop of Amida, who ransomed 7000 Persian captives.) Beginning of Persia's wars with the Ephthialites (Pers. Haithal), a people dwelling beyond the Oxus, and probably of "Thibetic or Turkish stock" (not Huns). Surprise, defeat, and death of the invading Khan. The Persians crossed the Oxus and chastised the Tatars in their own territory. Varahran was succeeded by his son,

440-457. Isdigerd II.,

who at once declared war upon Rome, but as hastily concluded Nine years' war with the Epthialites, ending with their defeat in their own country. The attempt of Isdigerd to convert Armenia to Zoroastrianism brought on a religious war, wherein the Christians were defeated (455 or 456). Forcible conversion of Armenia. Toward the close of his reign *Isdigerd* was defeated by the *Ephthialites*. After his death civil war between his sons Perozes and Hormisdas, ending in the victory of

459-483 (?). Perozes.

Great famine in the seventh year of his reign (?). Unsuccessful war and disgraceful peace with the Ephthialites (464-465). Revolt of Armenia under Vahan, which was still unsubdued when Perozes again attacked the Ephthialites, at whose hands he suffered a severe defeat, falling in the battle. He was succeeded by his brother (?)

483(?)-487. Balas (Pers. Valakhesh or Volgases), under whom Persia probably paid tribute to Khush-newaz, the Ephthialite Khan. Pacification of Armenia. Edict of toleration. Destruction of fire-altars. Balas was succeeded by

487(?)-**498**. **K**obad, (first reign)

son of Perozes, who had been in hiding among the Ephthialites. Successful war with the Khazars, a people of uncertain race (Turkish or Caucasian?), dwelling between the Volga and the Don. Communistic and ascetic doctrines of Mazdak, a high priest of Zoroaster, to which many converts were made, the king being of the number. Consequent disturbances in Persia and Armenia resulting in the deposition of Kobad and the accession of his brother, 498-501. Zamasp.

Kobad, however, soon escaped to the Ephthialites and returned

at the head of an army, whereupon Zamasp voluntarily resigned the crown.

501-531. Kobad (second reign).

Withdrawal of support from *Masdak*. The refusal of the Eastern Empire to fulfil its agreement to contribute to the defence of the pass of *Derbend* in the Caucasus, which was the usual route of the nomadic tribes in their invasions of Persia or the Eastern Empire, caused *Kobad* to declare war. Sack of *Amida* (502). An Ephthialite invasion induced peace in 507. Erection of the fortress of *Daras*, twelve miles from Nisibis by *Anastasius*, emperor of the East. Second war with the Eastern Empire (524–531), wherein the Persians, at first successful, were defeated by Belisarius in the battle of Daras (528). Kobad was succeeded by his son,

531-579. Chosroës I. Anushirwan ("The Just") perhaps the greatest of the Sassanid kings.

Peace with Rome (533): 1. Rome paid 11,000 lbs. of gold toward the fortification of the Caucasus. 2. Daras retained its fortifications, but was not to be the Roman headquarters. 3. Reciprocal surrender of recent conquests. 4. Eternal friendship and alliance, whence this peace is known as the "endless peace." It endured for seven years, at the end of which time Chosroës, jealous of the great victories of Justinian in the West, listened to the prayers of the East Goths and declared war.

540. Capture of Antioch.

Chosroës extorted ransom from the principal cities of western Asia Minor; returned home. A truce, concluded in 545, was broken in 549 by Rome, who sent assistance to the *Lazi* (inhabitants of ancient *Colchis*) in their war with Persia.

551. Capture of Petra by the Romans and Lazi.

563. Definite peace between Persia and Rome.

1. Lazica ceded to Rome. 2. Rome to make a yearly payment to Persia. 3. Exercise of their faith secured to the Christians in Persia. 4. Commercial intercourse between the empires restricted to certain roads and marts. 5. Free diplomatic intercourse. 6. Daras to retain its fortifications. 7. Disputes to be settled by arbitration. 8. Allies of either party included in the peace. 9. Persia undertook the maintenance of the Caspian Gates alone. 10. The peace was concluded for fifty years.

Successful wars with the Ephthialites and Khazars.

562. Expedition of Chosroës to Arabia, against the Christian kingdom founded there by Abyssinians early in the sixth century. Chosroës expelled the Abyssinians and left the country under the control of Saif, leader of the native Homerites; after his murder Arabia was made a Persian province.

The expedition to India ascribed to Chosroës is doubtful. *Dezabul*, Khan of the Turks, who had recently subjugated the Ephthialites and entered into alliance with the Eastern Empire, invaded Persia,

but met with no success.

572. Justin, Emperor of the East, declared war on Persia. Chosroës ravaged Syria. Fall of *Daras* (573).

Chosroës died, 579, in Mesopotamia.

''). Fall improved administration in Persia under Chosroës. Empoverned ed into four governments: East, Khorassan, Seistan, Kivears a orth, Armenia, Azerbizan, Ghilan, Koum, Isfahan; South, waz; West, Irak, or Babylonia, Assyria, Mesopotamia. Frequences of the king. Substitution of a fixed land tax for the r variable tax on produce. Tax collectors placed under the suppon of the priests. Reform in the army. Improved irrigation tection of foreigners. Encouragement of learning. Laws (HE axerxes revised. Collection of the Shah-na-meh, or Book of the gs, the basis of Firdusi's epic. Introduction of the Fables of pay, and of the game of chess from India. Toleration extended to eistians. Chosroës was succeeded by his son,

1-589. Hormisdas IV. (Hormazd).

At first a wise ruler, afterwards the worst of Persian kings.

. Invasion of Persia by the Eastern Emperor Maurice.

.. Defeat of the Persians at Constantia. The war continued with

alternate defeat and victory until in

Persia was invaded by Arabs, Khazars, and above all by the great Khan of the Turks. He was defeated by the Persian reral Bahram and fell in the battle. In the same year Hormisdas worked a war with Rome by invading Lazica. Bahram was decred on the Araxes. An insult offered him by the king caused his olt and the deposition and murder of Hormisdas, who was succeed by his son,

. 39-628. Chosroës II., Eberwiz,

who was at once involved in war with Bahram, who drove him the kingdom and assumed the crown. The reign of Bahram Varahran VI.) was short (590-591). Chosroës had taken refuge Constantinople, and a Roman force restored him to his throne. I ram, defeated, fled to the Turks.

the second reign of Chosroës II. was marked by a wonderful in-

case of Persia's power, and by its sudden fall.

Daras. Syria, Armenia, Galatia, Phrygia, ravaged. Sack of och. The accession of Heraclius to the throne of the Eastern ire did not end the war.

Invasion of Cappadocia.

Capture of Damascus.

Sack of Jerusalem.

Capture of *Pelusium* and *Alexandria* by the Persian general Shahr-Barz. Submission of Egypt.

Fall of Chalcedon. The Persians encamped within a mile of

Constantinople.

Capture of \overline{A} ncyra and of Rhodes. Persia restored to the limits which it attained under Darius I.

nearly had Chosroës driven Heraclius to despair that he preted to take refuge in Carthage, but his design was prevented by citizens of Constantinople. Thus driven to bay, the emperor and the desperate resolve of attacking his enemy in his own country. at the hes shahr-Barz. Defeat

crown. 1 raclius sailed to Lazica, and invaded Armenia. Chosroë

501-531 treated, and the Romans wintered in Albania.

Battle of the Sarus. Defeat of Shahr-barz. Chosroë Easterr lied himself with the Avars, and placed two armies in the fithe paragainst Heraclius in Asia Minor, one destined for a distance on Constantinople. The latter attempt failed, Constantin causild out, although attacked also by hosts of Bulgarians and outlifer barians from the west.

Da Winter campaign of Heraclius.

Se627. Dec. 12. Battle of Nineveh. Defeat of the Persians. For of Chosroës. Heraclius advanced to Ctesiphon, but return without assaulting the city.

Mutiny of the Persian troops at Ctesiphon under two of king's sons. Seizure and murder of Chosroës. He was successing

by his son,

628-629 (?). Kobad II. (Siroës),

who concluded peace with Rome on a basis of exchang conquests and captives. Death of Kobad (of the plague?). Uppation of Shahr-barz, who before two months were over was a chartered by his own troops. Reigns of Purandocht and Azer and docht, daughters of Chosroës II., followed by a period of anaxoduring which nine or ten nobles held the throne successively.

632-641 (651). Isdigerd, grandson of Chosroës II., Programme Sassanid king of Persia.

His whole reign was a struggle against the growing power of

Caliphs Abu-Bekr and Omar (p. 182).

633. Expedition of Kaled (the "sword of God") to Hira. De of the Persians. The whole region west of the Euphr fell into the hands of the Arabs, who, however, suffered a tempo check by the loss of the "Battle of the Bridge." Their rav: were soon renewed, and extended throughout Mesopotamia. Gexertions of the Persians. Levy of an army of 120,000 men, w. was defeated in the four days'

636. Battle of Cadesia,

by Sa'ad Ibu Abi Wakas. Loss of the Durufsh-kawan: royal standard of Persia.

637. Invasion of Mesopotamia by Sa'ad. Capture of Ctesiph.

Defeat of the Persians in the battle of Jalula.

639. Invasion of Susiana and Persia proper by the Arabs. Capt of Hormuzan, a Persian general, who, being brought bet Omar, asked for a cup of water, which he hesitated to taste until sured by the Caliph that he should not be harmed until he had druthe water, whereupon he dashed the water on the ground before astonished Caliph, who respected his promise and spared the Persia life.

The recall of Sa'ad emboldened Isdigerd to make a final effic Collection of an army of 150,000 men, which was totally defeated the

641. Battle of Nehavend ("victory of victories"). Fall of the Sassanid power. Persia henceforward governed by the caliphs. *Isdigerd III*. lived for ten years a fugitive, and was at last murdered (651).

SECOND PERIOD.

FROM THE TREATY OF VERDUN TO THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES (843-1096).

§ 1. ITALY AND GERMANY.

843-875. Carolingians in Italy.

After the death of two sons of Lothar I., Ludwig the German and Charles the Bald divided Lothar's inheritance by the treaty of Mersen on the Meuse (870). The German portion (Friesland, Lotharingia or Lothringen (Lorraine), so called after Lothar II.) was annexed to the kingdom of the East Franks, the Romance portion (Burgundy, Provence) to the kingdom of the West Franks. Boundary, the Meuse.

After the death of Ludwig II., who was the eldest son of Lothar I.

(875), Charles the Bald became Emperor († 877).

843-911. Carolingians in Germany.

843-876. Ludwig the German.

Wars with the Slavs, with Charles the Bald, and especially with the Northmen, i. e. the Scandinavian sea warriors (Vikings), by whose ferocious energy the west of Europe was during this epoch harassed almost beyond belief. In 845 simultaneous attack by the Northmen upon all three of the Frankish kingdoms. Ludwig the German's son,

876-887. Charles the Fat,

at first in conjunction with his brothers, Karlmann († 880) and Ludwig († 882). Successful resistance to the claims of Charles the Bald on the Rhine (battle of Andernach, 876) and Italy. Charles the Fat became Emperor in 881, and in 884 was elected king of the West Franks. He united once more under one sceptre the Monarchy of Charles the Great, with the exception of cisjurane Burgundy (Dauphiné, Provence, part of Languedoc), which became a separate kingdom under Boso. Charles the Fat was deposed by East and West Franks on account of his cowardice (siege of Paris by the Northmen), abdicated the throne at Tribur (887), and died almost immediately thereafter. The East Franks elected

887-899. Arnulf of Carinthia, grandson of Ludwig the German, illegitimate son of Karlmann. He defeated the Northmen upon the *Dyle* (at *Löwen*, 891), and in alliance with the Magyars, a nomadic Finnish tribe, which had gradually made its way from the Ural region towards Europe, and under guidance of

Arpad had invaded Hungary, conquered Svatopluk II. (893), the founder of the kingdom of Moravia. Arnulf went twice to Italy, and was crowned Emperor (896). His son,

899-911. Ludwig the Child (six years old),

was completely under the influence of *Hatto*, archbishop of Mainz. Terrible devastation of Germany by the *Magyars*. In 908 they traversed Bavaria, Franconia, and penetrated into Thuringia and Saxony. Lewis, defeated in the neighborhood of the *Lech* (910), was obliged to pay them tribute. Internecine feuds in Franconia: Adalbert of *Babenberg* against Rudolf, bishop of Würzburg, of the family of *Conrad* of *Hesse*. Victory of the *Conradines*. Adalbert executed in front of his castle. Weakness of the young king. The monarchy seemed about to break up into duchies: Saxony, Franconia, Bavaria, Swabia, Lotharingia. After Ludwig's death the aged *Otto the Illustrious*, duke of Saxony, refused the crown, and secured the election of

911-918. Conrad I. of Franconia,

by the nobles. Invasions of Danes, Slavs, and Magyars. Conrad was constantly at war with the West Franks and with his own subjects in a vain endeavor to obtain recognition of his sovereignty, especially from *Henry*, son of Otto the Illustrious and duke of Saxony, since 912. *Lotharingia*, with the exception of Alsace, became a part of the kingdom of the West Franks.

919-1024. Kings and Emperors of the Saxon house.

In obedience to the wish of Conrad, expressed on his deathbed, and seconded by his brother, *Eberhard*, the *Saxons* and *Franks* elected at *Fritzlar* on the *Eder*

919-936. Henry I. the Fowler, founder of the German monarchy.

Henry compelled Burkhard, duke of Alamannia (Swabia), and Arnulf, duke of Bavaria, to acknowledge his supremacy.

924. The Magyars (Hungarians) made a new inroad. Henry concluded a nine years' truce with them, and secured immunity for Saxony and Thuringia by payment of tribute.

925. Henry regained Lotharingia.

Enlargement and better fortification of old fortresses (Merseburg) and construction of new ones (Quedlinburg, Goslar), which at a later period became cities. There was no wide-spread founding of cities by Henry himself, but in his reign the Saxons were gradually

accustomed to city life and to cavalry service in war.

Successful wars with the Wends, against whom a great mark was established along the middle Elbe, out of which at a later time (after the retirement of margrave (Markgraf) Gero, 963) were formed the Altmark or Northmark, Meissen, and the Ostmark (later Mark Lausitz), lying between the two. Victory at Lenzen (929). Wars with the Bohemians (recognition of the duty of feudal service), and with the Danes (Gorm the Old). Creation of a mark between the Eider and Sley (934), afterwards called Mark Schleswig.

Henry refused to pay the promised tribute to the Magyars, who thereupon made a new inroad.

933. Victory of Henry over the Hungarians (on the Unstrut?). Heinrich died in 936. He was succeeded by his eldest son by Mathilda,

936-973. Otto I., the Great,

who was elected by Saxons and Franks, and crowned at Aachen by the archbishop of Mainz. Homage of the princes of all the German races (Stämme). First appearance of the four court offices: duke of Lotharingia, Chamberlain; duke of Franconia, Steward; duke of Swabia, Cup-bearer; duke of Bavaria, Marshal.

Countless swarms of Hungarians crossed Franconia (937), to invade Saxony. Defeated and pursued by Otto, they took a western

direction, and ravaged France as far as the Loire.

Otto defeated the rebellious duke of Bavaria, and drove him from his duchy, and subdued a revolt of Eberhard, duke of Franconia, and his own half-brother, Thankmar, who fell in the battle on the Eresburg (938). Henry, Otto's younger brother, rebelled, and was defeated by Otto along with his ally Giselbert, duke of Lotharingia, at Birthen, on the Rhine; the rebels, with whom Eberhard made common cause, called in the assistance of the French. Eberhard fell at Andernach, Giselbert was drowned on his flight, Henry fled to France (939). A murderous assault which Henry made upon his brother after he had received forgiveness failed; Henry threw himself upon the king's mercy, received forgiveness a second time (941), and became henceforward, with his brother Bruno, archbishop of Cologne (since 953), the king's chief reliance. Otto gave Lotharingia in 944 to Conrad the Red, the ancestor of the Franco-Salic royal house, who four years afterwards became his son-in-law. Otto made his brother Henry duke of Bavaria (946).

Wars with the Wends, conducted by margrave Gero, with the Danes, under Otto himself, who advanced to Jutland (Mark Schleswig given to Hermann Billung), with Boleslav, duke of Bohemia (950), who became a vassal of the empire, and with the Hungarians, princi-

pally under the command of Henry.

948. Otto appointed his son Liudolf (by Editha) duke of Swabia.

946-950. Otto interfered in the French wars. He protected King Louis IV. against Hugo, count of France, both of whom were his brothers-in-law.

951. First expedition of Otto's to Italy against Berengar II. of Ivrea. Otto released and married Adelheid, the widow of King Lothar (of the house of Burgundy), and then nineteen years of age. Berengar submitted to Otto as his suzerain (952).

953. Lindolf, Otto's son, and Conrad, duke of Lotharingia, Otto's son-

in-law, rebelled against the king.

954. New inroad of the Hungarians, who swept through Germany, ravaging as they went, to France; the rebels were in alliance

¹ Probably not at Merseburg. See V. Giesebrecht, Gesch. der Deutschen Kaiserzeit, İ.⁴, 232.

with them. After a severe struggle and several fruitless attempts at reconciliation, Liudolf and Conrad submitted. They were forgiven, but deprived of their duchies. Archbishop Bruno received Lotharingia; duke Burkhard, Swabia. Bavaria, still in revolt, was subjugated by Otto and his brother Henry. New inroad of the Hungarians.

955. Victory over the Hungarians on the Lechfeld

Aug. 10. (Augsburg). Conrad fell in the battle. The Bavarian Ostmark, which was afterwards transformed into the duchy of Austria (Oesterreich), reëstablished. Victorious expedition against the Wends, whom Otto defeated on the Rekenitz.

957. Liudolf died in arms against Berengar, who was in rebellion.

961. Second expedition of Otto's to Italy, Pope John XII. having implored his assistance against Berengar. Otto hastened to Rome, where he

962. Renewed the imperial office. Holy Roman Em-Feb. pire of the German Nation.

While Otto was engaged in the war with Berengar in Lombardy, John XII. endeavored to free himself from the impe-

963. rial protection and allied himself with Otto's foes. The em-Nov. peror advanced upon Rome and captured the city; John fled. The Romans were obliged to promise never to elect another Pope without the consent of the emperor. John was deposed by a synod in Rome, and Leo VIII. elected Pope.

964. A revolt of the Romans quickly suppressed. While Otto Jan. was again absent in northern Italy, where Berengar had, meantime, been obliged to surrender (he died as prisoner in Bamberg), Leo was expelled by the Romans, and John returned, but soon died in consequence of his dissipation. The Romans choose Benedict Pope. Otto captured Rome the second time, deposed Benedict, and reinstated Leo.

966-967. Third expedition to Italy. Otto's son, Otto II., already crowned as German king, received the imperial crown at Rome. Otto I. died at *Memleben*, near Merseburg. His sepulchre is in the cathedral of the bishopric of *Magdeburg*, which he had

created.

- 973-983. Otto II., highly gifted, but passionate, husband of the Grecian princess *Theophano*.
- 976. Otto's cousin, Henry the Quarrelsome, duke of Bavaria, instigated a conspiracy against the emperor, was conquered and deposed. Bavaria given to Otto of Swabia, son of Liudolf. Carinthia separated from Bavaria and made a duchy. Luitpold of Babenberg received the (Bavarian) Eastmark.
- 978. Otto surprised by Lothar, king of France, escaped with difficulty, reconquered Lotharingia, invaded France, and besieged Paris, but without success.
- 980-983. Wars in Italy. The emperor crossed the Alps, to Rome, 981. advanced into southern Italy, defeated the Greeks and Sara-

- 982. cens at Colonne, south of Cotrone, but was afterwards defeated by them further south on the Calabrian coast 1 where his army was annihilated.
- 983. Victorious advance of the *Danes* and *Wends*; destruction of the bishoprics of Havelberg and Brandenburg. Otto II. died in Rome.

983-1002. Otto III., three years old.

Henry the Quarrelsome's claim to the guardianship, and to the crown itself, was denied, but Bavaria, without Carinthia, was returned to him. Otto's mother, the Grecian Theophano, conducted the regency in Germany, his grandmother, Adelheid, in Italy; after the death of Theophano (991), Adelheid and Willigis, archbishop of Mainz, conducted the government until the young prince took the reins in 995. From his great intellectual endowments known as the "Wonder of the World," he was dreamy and unpractical. Three Roman expeditions.

996. On the first expedition Otto was crowned by Gregory V.

998-999. On the second his teacher Gerbert was elected pope as Sylvester II. Attempt of Crescentius to throw off the German yoke and restore the ancient republic. He was defeated and executed. It was Otto's design to make "golden Rome" the imperial residence and centre of a new universal empire.

1000. Journey through Germany, pilgrimage to the grave of St. Adalbert, foundation of the archbishopric of *Gnesen*. A widespread belief that this year would bring the end of the world and the coming of the Kingdom of Heaven led thousands of people to undertake a pilgrimage to Rome.

001. During his third visit to Italy, revolt of the Romans. Otto

died in the castle of Paterno at the foot of Soracte.

1002-1024. Henry II. (the Saint),

son of Henry the Quarrelsome of Bavaria, grandson of King Henry I., was elected king at Mainz, after his rival, *Eckard*, margrave of Meissen, had been murdered. Henry II. enforced the acknowledgment of his sovereignty, particularly from *Hermann*, duke of Swabia.

1004. First expedition to Italy against Ardoin of Ivrea; Henry

crowned king of Italy in Pavia.

1004-1018. Wars with Boleslav, king of Poland, who was compelled to give up Bohemia, but retained Lusatia.

Foundation of the bishopric of Bamberg (1007). Increase in the power of the church. Reform of the monasteries. Energetic enforcement of the public peace.

1014. Second expedition to Italy. Henry crowned emperor in Rome. Ardoin gives up his resistance (died in a monastery, 1015).

1016-1018. Henry went to war to secure his inheritance in Bur-

1 The battlefield is unknown; it was not at Basentello. See V. Giesebecht, Gesch. d. deutschen Kaiserzeit, 1.4 597.

gundy, which had been resigned in his favor by the last king

of Burgundy, 1 Rudolf III. (1016).

1022. On the third expedition to Italy, Henry fought with the Grecians in lower Italy, with the assistance of the *Normans* who had settled there in 1015. Henry died July 15, 1024.

1024-1125. Frankish or Salian Emperors.

Election held at Oppenheim between Mainz and Worms,—the first election in which princes of all the tribes had partici-

pated.

After hesitating a short time between the two Conrads, cousins, the princes chose the elder, the son of the Frankish count Henry, eldest son of Otto of Carinthia, over the younger, the son of Conrad, younger son of Otto of Carinthia.

1024-1039. Conrad II. (the Salian).

1025-1030. Revolt of the Babenberger, Ernst, duke of Swabia, stepson of Conrad, son of his wife Gisela, resulting from the conflicting claims of the emperor and of Ernst as the personal heir of Henry II., upon Burgundy (Arles). Ernst fell in battle in 1030.

1026. Expedition to Italy. Conrad crowned king of Italy in Milan, but obliged to bring Pavia and Ravenna to submission by force of arms. Crowned emperor, 1027, in the presence of Cnut the Great, king of England and Denmark, and Rudolf III. of Burgundy (Arles). The Eider made the boundary between Germany and Denmark,

Schleswig, therefore, was abandoned to the Danes.

Invasion of Germany by the Poles under *Mieczeslav II.*, where they ravaged the country to the *Saale*, and carried 10,000 prisoners to Poland. Conrad hastened from the Rhine, and provided defences against a new inroad, but attacked the Hungarians, though without success (1030). In 1031 Conrad attacked the Poles, forced them to surrender their prisoners, and restored *Lusatia* to the empire. *Miec*-

zeslav became the Emperor's vassal (1032).

After the death of Rudolf III. (1032), Burgundy, that is, the kingdom of Arles, which was formed in 933, by the union of cisjurane and transjurane Burgundy (p. 193), was, in three campaigns, wrested from the hands of Odo, Count of Champagne, who claimed it as heir of Henry II. and united with the empire. At a later time, however, the Romance portions of Burgundy, the lands along the Rhône, Saône, Isère, and Durance, fell to France; the Alamannian portions (Franche Comté, Switzerland) remained a part of the empire. In Italy the small fiefs were made legally hereditary, and this became the common custom in Germany. To counterbalance this tendency Conrad seems to have designed doing away with ducal offices, and making the royal supremacy immediate and hereditary throughout all German lands.

1036. On his return from a second expedition to Italy, Conrad 1039. died at Utrecht. His son had been crowned at Aachen in June 4th his boyhood, and now succeeded to the throne as

¹ Otherwise known as the kingdom of Arles. — Trans.

1039-1056. Henry III. (called "the Black"). The imperial power at its highest point.

King Henry was for a time, also, duke of Bavaria, Swabia, and

Franconia. The ducal throne in Carinthia was long vacant.

1042-1044. In Hungary the king, *Peter*, whom Henry had reinstated at the expense of three campaigns, became a vassal of the empire. Extension of the Bavarian Eastmark to the *Leitha*.

Tedious wars with the unruly Godfrey the Bearded, duke of upper Lotharingia, which was at last (1049) given to the Alsacian count Gerhard, the ancestor of the house of Lorraine. Godfrey went to Italy (1054), where he married Beatrix of Tuscany. Henry favored the attempt to introduce the Treuga Dei (p. 203). Proclamation of a general king's peace in the empire.

1046-1047. First expedition to Rome. Henry caused a synod to depose the three rival Popes (Sylvester III., Benedict IX., Gregory VI.), each of whom was accused of simony, and appointed a German, Suidger, bishop of Bamberg, Pope, as Clement II., who crowned him emperor (Christmas, 1046). After Clement, Henry appointed three German Popes in succession. He invested Drogo, son of the Norman Tancred of Hauteville, with Apulia.

1055. Second Roman expedition. Henry died at Gozlar, Oct. 28, 1056. He was succeeded by his son,

1056-1106. Henry IV., six years old,

who had been crowned king at the age of four. Spoiled in his youth, he grew to manhood passionate but weak. His mother, Agnes of Poitou, the regent, gave Bavaria to the Saxon count Otto of Nordheim, Carinthia to Berthold of Zähringen, Swabia to her son-in-law, Rudolf of Rheinfeld. Abduction of the young king from Kaiserswert to Cologne (1062) by Archbishop Anno, who was soon obliged to share the administration of the empire with Adalbert, the ambitious archbishop of Bremen (1065). Conspiracy of the princes against Adalbert of Bremen. Imperial Diet at Tribur (1066). Adalbert banished from court for three years († 1072).

Otto of Nordheim deposed from the dukedom of Bavaria, which was given to his son-in-law, Welf, son of the margrave Azzo of Este. (The house of Welf was extinct in the male line.) Magnus, duke of Saxony, kept in confinement. Revolt of the Saxons, whom Henry had displeased by the erection of numerous fortresses in their land. Flight of Henry from the Harzburg (1073), humiliating peace, destruction of the Harzburg. Henry defeated the Saxons on the Unstrut (1075). Contest with Pope

1073-1085. Gregory VII. (Hildebrand),

descended from a family having a small estate in southern Tuscany. He was educated at the monastery of Cluny. He had, as

¹ In possession of Lorraine down to 1737. See Modern History, Second Period, § 3.

cardinal-subdeacon, afterwards as archdeacon and chancellor, con-

ducted the temporal affairs of the papacy under five Popes.

Strict enforcement of the celibacy of the clergy, war against simony (Acts viii. 18), and lay investitures, whereby is meant the investiture of clergy with the secular estates and rights of their spiritual benefices by the temporal power, by means of the ring and staff.

Gregory in alliance with Robert Guiscard, duke of the Normans, and with the dissatisfied princes in Germany. Henry excommunicated (1076); suspended from his royal office by the Diet at Tribur (Oct. 1076), and the ultimate decision referred to a Diet to be held at Augsburg in February, 1077. A few days before Christmas Henry left Speier in secret with his wife, son, and one attendant; crossing the Alps under great hardship,

1077. Henry humbled himself before the Pope at Ca-Jan. 25–28. nossa,

a castle belonging to the Pope's firm friend, the powerful Matilda, marchioness of Tuscany. After three days' delay, passed by Henry in the garb of a penitent in the snow-covered castle court, Gregory admitted him to his presence, and gave him a conditional absolution.

Fortune turned in Henry's favor. Rudolf of Swabia, whom the malcontents in Germany had elected king (March, 1077) at Forchheim, was defeated and mortally wounded in the battle on the Elster (1080). Swabia given to Frederic of Hohenstaufen, Henry's son-inlaw (1079).

Henry, a second time excommunicated (1080), went to Italy, captured Rome, and was crowned by Clement III., a Pope of his own creation. Gregory VII., besieged in the castle of St. Angelo, was released by the Norman, Robert Guiscard, and died (1085) at Salerno. (Dilexi justitiam et odi iniquitatem, propterea morior in exilio).

The influence of Gregory VII. had been felt in all parts of the Christian world. It was under his auspices, some have claimed at his suggestion, that William of Normandy undertook the conquest of

England.

Henry was involved in a contest with a new king set up by the Saxons, Hermann of Salm, son of the count of Luxemburg. Hermann, however, abdicated in 1088, and died the same year. Submission of the Saxons upon receiving assurance that their ancient privileges should be respected.

The church was still hostile. Marriage of Matilda of Tuscany

with Welf V., son of duke Welf of Bavaria.

Third expedition to Italy. Henry captured Mantua 1089–1097. after a siege of eleven months, but was in general unsuccess-Revolt of his son Conrad (1092). Henry returned to Germany in 1097, in which year the bands of the first crusaders, under Walter of Perejo and Peter the Hermit, crossed Germany. War with Conrad (died 1101), and afterwards with Henry's other son, Henry, who imprisoned his father. Flight of the emperor to Lüttich, where he died Aug. 7, 1106. He was succeeded by his younger son,

1106-1125. Henry V.

The king went to Rome, took Pope Paschal II. prisoner, and forced him to perform the coronation and acknowledge the imperial right of investiture (1111). As soon as the emperor had left Italy the Lateran Council declared the concessions invalid as having been extorted by force, and a second council at Vienna excommunicated Henry.

Wars with German princes who were in revolt, especially with Lothar of Saxony, and the archbishops of Mainz and Cologne. Victory of the Saxons at Welfesholze, near Mansfeld (1115). The war of the investiture was ended, after a long contest with Calixtus II.,

by the

1122. Concordat of Worms.

Election of bishops and abbots in Germany to take place in the presence of the emperor or his representatives; investiture by the emperor must precede consecration, but was to be conferred not with the ring and staff, but with the sceptre. In Italy and Burgundy investiture was to follow canonical election and consecration. Ecclesiastics holding secular benefices were bound to perform the feudal duties.

§ 2. FRANCE.

843-987. Carolingian kings of the Franks,

843-877. Charles the Bald.

His rule was limited to the neighborhood of Laon; Brittany and Septimania were independent; his supremacy in Aquitania was but nominal. Ravages of the Northmen incessant, daring, terrible. Sack of Saintes, Limoges, Bordeaux, Tours, Rouen, Orléans, Toulouse, Bayeux, Evreux, Nantes. Some quarters of Paris, even, were ravaged. Lotharingia divided between France and Germany by the treaty of Meuthe (870). Outhe, Meuse, Jura, the boundary between Germany and France. Charles wasted his energy striving for the imperial crown.

Fiefs proclaimed hereditary at the diet of Chiersi (877). Charles died on Mont Cenis, returning from an unsuccessful expedition to Italy. Rise of scholasticism. Joannes Scotus Erigena. Hincmar of Rheims. Charles was succeeded by his son,

877-879. Ludwig the Stammerer (Louis le Bègue).

879-882. Ludwig II. in the north of France.

879-884. Karlmann in Aquitaine, and over the whole kingdom after 882. The ravages of the Northmen increased in frequency and dura-

tion in spite of Ludwig's victory at Saucourt in 881 (Ludwig-slied). Revolt of Boso, duke of cisjurane Burgundy (879). The heir of Ludwig II., Charles, being but five years old, the nobles chose 884-887. Charles the Fat of Germany,

king, thus uniting the whole empire once more in one hand. Siege of Paris by the Northmen under Rollo (*Hrolf*) in 885. Heroic defence by Eudes (*Odo*), count of Paris. Charles, consenting to buy the retreat of the Northmen, was deposed in 887. (Died in 888 in Germany.)

The empire of Charles reduced to six clearly distinct states: Italy, Germany, Lorraine, Provence, Transjurane Burgundy (formed by the union of western Switzerland and Franche Comté, under Rudolf I., nephew of Eudes), France. In France the nobles passed over the infant Charles, and elected

888-898. Eudes, count of Paris, son of Robert the Strong. The opposition party among the nobles advocated the claims of

893-923. Charles III., the Simple, who was not generally acknowledged until after the death of Eudes. In his reign the

911 (?). Northmen gained a permanent foothold on the Seine (Normandy), under Rolf (Rollo), the first duke of Normandy, with feudal sovereignty over Bretagne. Treaty of St. Claire sur Epte, near Ghisors. Baptism of Rollo under the name of Robert.

Revolts against Charles. Robert, duke of France, brother of Eudes, proclaimed king, but slain in the battle of Soissons (823). His place was filled by his son-in-law, Rudolf of Burgundy. Charles treacherously seized by Herbert of Vermandois and imprisoned (died in 929). His wife, Eadgyfu (Edwina), fled to her brother Æthelstane, king of England, with her three-year-old son Ludwig IV., hence called d'Outre Mer (Beyond Seas). Rudolf dying in 936 without issue, the nobles, Hugh the White, duke of France († 956), Herbert of Vermandois, and William Longsword of Normandy, recalled

936-954. Ludwig from Beyond Seas (Louis d'Outremer),

in whose reign the country was torn with civil war between the king, Hugh the White, or Great, and Otto, king of Germany (east Franks). Ludwig was succeeded by his son,

954-986. Lothar,

who was under the influence of Hugh Capet, son of Hugh the Great. An unsuccessful attempt to acquire Lorraine brought on an invasion of France by Otto II. of Germany. Lothar was succeeded by his son,

986-987. Ludwig V. (le Fainéant), who, after a short and stormy reign, died suddenly (987), without issue. The direct line of Charles the Great was extinct. The only man who had a claim to the succession was the uncle of Ludwig, Charles, duke of Lorraine, a vassal of the emperor.

987-1328. Capetian dynasty, direct line.

987-996. Hugh Capet

was chosen king, but was powerless to resist the great feudal nobles, each of whom surpassed the king in military power and extent of territory (dukes of Normandy, Brittany, Burgundy, Aquitaine; counts of Flanders, Champagne, Vermandois). The royal domain reached from the Somme to the Loire, with Normandy and Anjou on the west and Champagne on the east. Paris in the centre was the capital of the new French monarchy, as Laon had been the capital of the old German kingdom. Capture of Charles the Carolingian. Gerbert, archbishop of Rheims, afterwards Pope Sylvester II. Under Hugh's son,

996-1031. Robert, the royal power was wasted to a shadow. The king, pious, weak, and absurd, was involved in domestic trouble and in constant wars with the nobles. Rising of the serfs (997). Famine (1030-1032). The Vexin on the Seine given to Normandy. Robert's son,

1031-1060. Henry I.,

retained scarcely a trace of power, beyond the nomination of

the bishops.

Introduction of the "Truce of God" (Treuga Dei) by the clergy (at first [1031] in Guienne), whereby a cessation of all feuds was enjoined by the church during church festivals and from Wednesday evening to Monday morning in every week (only 80 days in a year available for warfare). The crown having now become hereditary, Henry was succeeded quietly by his son, 1060-1108. Philip I.,

whose long reign, distinguished by no deeds of his own, is remarkable for two important events: the conquest of England by the

Normans (1066), and the first crusade (1096).

§ 3. ENGLAND.

828-1066. England under the West Saxon kings.

828-837. Ecgberht, king of Wessex (p. 180), ruler of Sussex, Kent, Essex, overlord of Mercia, East Anglia, Northumbria, Wales,

and Strathclyde.

Ravages of the Northmen. Pouring in swarms from the northern kingdoms of Denmark and Scandinavia, these pirates, the vikings, harassed England and the continent almost beyond belief. The English called the Northmen "Danes," although not all their assailants came from that kingdom. The Northmen were still heathens. The epoch of their invasions falls into three divisions: I. (789–866) Period of invasion and ravage without settlement. II. (866–1003) Period of settlement and conquest in various parts of the country. III. (1003–1066) Period of political conquest. The first recorded attack was in 789 (p. 189). In 834 Sheppey was ravaged. Defeat of the Danes at Hengestesdun (836).

Ecgberht was succeeded by his son Æthelwulf (837-858). In 851 the Danes took London and Canterbury; in 855 they wintered for the first time in Sheppey. Æthelwulf married Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald, king of the West Franks. He was succeeded by his son Æthelbald (858-860), who married his father's widow. On his death Judith returned to the continent and married Baldwin, afterwards count of Flanders. From this union descended Matilda, wife of William the Conqueror. Æthelbald was succeeded by his brother

Æthelberht (860-866), who was followed by his brother,

866-871. Æthelred I.

Settlement of the Danes in Northumbria (romance of Ragnar Lodbrog). The Danes in East Anglia (866), in Mercia (868).

870. East Anglia conquered and settled by the Danes. Martyrdom of St. Edmund, king of the East Angles,

Sack of *Peterborough* and *Crowland*. Danes in *Wessex* (871). Nine battles were fought with the invaders this year. At Æscesdun the Danes were defeated by Æthelred and Alfred his brother.

871-901. Ælfred the Great.

In the earlier years of his reign Wessex was at peace, but the other parts of England still suffered from Danish inroads. In 876 Danes settled in Northumbria, and *Guthorm*, Danish king in East Anglia, entered Wessex. In 877 lands in Mercia were divided among the Danes.

878. The Danes ravaged Wessex.

Ælfred took refuge in the forest. Erection of the fortress of Athelney. Defeat of the Danes at Ethandun. Treaty of Wedmore, between Ælfred and Guthorm. The Danes left Wessex, but East Anglia and a part of Mercia were given up to them. London, however, was retained by Ælfred. The country of the Danes, Danelagh, as it came to be called, now embraced the larger part of England.

880-893. Peace in Wessex.

Ælfred was a skilful warrior but no lover of war. His genius was for civil government. Revision of the laws; separation of the judicial from the executive department. Trial by jury was not introduced by Ælfred; that institution was of Norman origin, a development of principles of old Frankish law. Creation of a fleet (882). Submission of several Welsh provinces. Encouragement of learning. Bæda's Ecclesiastical History, Orosius' History, and Bæthius' Consolation of Philosophy, translated into Anglo-Saxon by Ælfred. Voyages of Othhere and Wulfhere along the northern shores of Europe undertaken at Ælfred's request. Asser. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle probably put into shape in this reign.

The Danish war broke out again in 893 with an invasion of Kent. Defeat of the Danes at Buttington. In 901 Ælfred died. He left five children: two sons, Eadward and Æthelweard, and three daughters, Æthelflæd the "Lady of the Mercians," wife of Æthelred, ealdorman of West Saxon Mercia, Æthelgifu, abbess of Shaftesbury, Ælfthryth, wife of Baldwin II., count of Flanders, son of Baldwin and Judith (p. 203). Of this marriage was born Matilda, wife of William

the Conqueror.

901-925. Eadward the Elder.

Erection of fortresses along the Mercian frontier by Eadward and Æthelflæd. Conquest of the Five Boroughs (Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, Nottingham) by Æthelflæd. Annexation of Mercia to Wessex. Conquest of East Anglia and Essex. Submission of Strathclyde and all the Scots (824). Eadward lord of all Britain. Wessex, Kent, Sussex, he ruled by inheritance; Mercia, Essex, East Anglia, by conquest from the Danes; Northumberland, Wales, Scotland, Strathclyde, as overlord. Eadward died in 925, and was succeeded by his son

925-940. Æthelstan.

League of Scots, Welsh, and Danes crushed in 926. Again

renewed, it was again broken up by the defeat of the allies in the

937. Battle of Brunanburh.

Eadward was succeeded by his brother Eadmund (940–946). Revolt of Danes and Scots. Reconquest of the Five Boroughs and the Danelagh. Cumberland given as a fief to Malcolm, king of Scots. Dunstan appointed abbot of Glastonbury. Murder of Eadmund, who was succeeded by his son Eadred (946–955). A revolt of the Danes was crushed in 954; final submission of the Danelagh. Eadwig (955–959), nephew of Eadred, quarrelled with Dunstan, and drove him from the country. He was succeeded by his brother,

959-975. Eadgar,

the under king of Mercia. Dunstan, recalled in 958, archbishop of Canterbury 959, was the true ruler. The royal power stood high. Revision of the laws. Secular priests were out of favor, and monks were installed in many of the wealthiest churches. Maintenance of a large fleet. Eadgar was followed by his son Eadward (the martyr), murdered 978.

978-1016. Æthelred II., the Unready, son of Eadgar,

in whose reign the political conquest of England was undertaken by the Danish sovereigns (p. 203). Danish invasions began, after a long interval, in 980. Death of Dunstan, 988. Battle of Maldon against the Danes (991), when Brihtnoth, ealdorman of the East Saxons, fell. (Song of Brihtnoth's Death.) In this year (991) the plan of buying off the Danes was adopted, 10,000 pounds being paid, which were raised by a special tax (Danegeld). In 994 Anlaf (Olaf Tryggvesson) and Swegen (Svend with the Forked Beard) ravaged Kent, and were paid 16,000 pounds. Ravages of the Northmen in 997, 998, 999, 1001, 1002, 1003, 1004, 1006, 1009, 1010, 1011, 1013, 1015.

1002. 24,000 pounds paid to the Northmen. Massacre of all (?) Danes in England, upon one day (Nov. 13, Danish Vespers) by order of *Æthelred*. Swegen resolves on the conquest of Eng-Marriage of Æthelred and Emma, daughter of Richard II., duke of Normandy. In 1007, 36,000 pounds, in 1012, 48,000 pounds, were paid to the Northmen. Death of Swegen (1014). Election of his son Cnut (Canute) to succeed him. The Danes had now recovered all that part of England which they had acquired by the treaty of Wedmore (p. 204) in 978. Upon the death of Æthelred the Danish party in England chose Cnut king, but the English party, which centred in London, chose Eadmund Ironside (1016), son of Æthelred. He made a brave stand, and many battles were fought this year. After the defeat of Eadmund at Assandun peace was concluded. Eadmund received Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, and London; Cnut received Northumberland and Mercia. The nominal overlordship of England remained with Eadmund. After the death of Eadmund (1016) Cnut became king of England.

¹ Such is his conventional title; probably "Despiser of Counsel" would better convey the meaning of "Redeless."

1016-1042. Danish supremacy over England.

1016–1035.

England divided into four governments: Wessex, under Cnut; Mercia, East Anglia, Northumberland, under Jarls or Earls. Huscarls, Cnut's personal following. Cnut in Rome (1027). Laws of Cnut (1028). Subjugation of Malcolm, king of Scots (1031). Cnut was succeeded by his sons Harold (1035-1040) and Harthacnut (1040-1042). Godwine, earl of Wessex; Leofric, earl of Mercia; Siward, earl of Northumberland. On Harthacnut's death the son of Æthelred,

1042-1066. Eadward, the Confessor,

was elected king. He had been educated at the Norman court, and during his reign Norman influence was supreme at the court of England. The country was in the hands of the great earls Godwine, Leofric, Siward. In 1051, Godwine, father-in-law of the king, was exiled. Recalled in 1052 he brought about a general banishment of the French. Upon the death of Godwine his power passed to his son Harold (1053). In 1055 Harold's brother Tostiq succeeded Siward as earl of Northumberland. In 1057 Harold's brother Gyrth was made earl in Norfolk and Suffolk, and another brother of Harold, Leofwine, earl of Kent and Essex. Subjugation of Wales by Harold (1063). Revolt of Northumberland (1065). Deposition of Tostig and election of Morkere, grandson of Leofric of Mercia, and brother of Edwin, then earl of Mercia. On the death of Eadward,

1066. Harold.

earl of Wessex, was elected king.

A claim to the succession was immediately advanced by William, duke of Normandy, upon three grounds. 1. The alleged bequest of Eadward the Confessor. 2. An oath taken by Harold upon occasion of his having been shipwrecked on the coast of Normandy about 1064, in virtue of which he had become William's vassal, and had promised to marry his daughter and secure him the succession after the death of Eadward. 3. The right of his wife, Matilda (p. 204). The claim being rejected, William at once prepared to assert • it by arms.

Invasion of Yorkshire by Harold Hardrada, king of Norway, and

Tostig, brother of Harold of England.

Sept. 25. Battle of Stamfordbridge.

Defeat and death of the invaders. William had meantime landed at Pevensey. Harold hastened south, but was defeated in the

Oct. 14. Battle of Hastings or Senlac,

and fell on the field. Eadgar Ætheling, son of Eadward the Confessor, was chosen king, but soon submitted, with all the chief men, to the victor. Election of William.

§ 4. THE NORTH.

Denmark.

Northern historians of the Middle Age refer the conquest of the North to the Asas under Odin (p. 168), who gave Denmark to his son.

After him came Dan the Famous, who gave a name to the kingdom. Under Frode the Peaceful, who reigned at the beginning of our era, Denmark enjoyed a Golden Age. In the eighth century the famous battle of Bravalla was fought between Harold Hildetand, king of Denmark, and Sigurd Ring, king of Sweden, and ended in favor of the Swedes.

Thus far all is mythical. The true history of Denmark begins with Gorm the Old. It is clear, however, that the Danes had settled in two bands: one occupying the peninsula, Jutland, Schleswig, and Holstein; the other occupying the eastern islands Zealand, Fünen, etc. Both divisions, between which there was scanty intercourse, were ruled by numerous petty chiefs (smaa-kongar), among the most famous of whom was the king and high-priest of Lejre in Zealand, who was at the head of a loose confederacy of the islands. When Jutes and Angles in the fifth century migrated to Britain (p. 176), Danes from the islands seem to have taken their place in the peninsula.

Godfrey, king of Jutland, was embroiled with Charles the Great, and built a Dannevirk or line of fortresses across the peninsula. Under his successor, Hemming, the Eyder was made the boundary between

Denmark and the Frankish empire.

In 822 Christianity preached in Denmark by Ebbo, archbishop of Rheims. In 826 Ansgarius, "the Apostle of the North," labored in

Denmark, but without lasting results.

Gorm the Old (about 860-935), the first king of all Denmark, was a devout heathen, who persecuted the new faith until forced to refrain by Henry I. of Germany. Erection of the great Dannevirke between the Sley and the Eyder. Gorm ruled the peninsula, the islands, and Skaania and Bleking, the southern provinces of Sweden. Harold Blue-tooth (Blaatand), 935-985. War with Norway. Otto II. of Germany, in 975, forced Harold to consent to the introduction of Christianity in his kingdom. Svend Forked Beard (Tveskjæd), 985-1014. Successful revolt of the tributary Wends. Svend in England (p. 205). Knut the Great (1014-1035), king of Denmark and of England. He passed most of his time in England, which led to an attempt on the part of Ulf-Jarl to make Hardeknut king in Denmark. It failed, and Knut later had Ulf killed. In 1028 Knut was proclaimed king of Norway. Hardeknut (Hathacnut) (1035-1042) succeeded his father in Den-His war with Magnus of Norway ended in an agreement whereby whoever should outlive the other should inherit his kingdom. Under this treaty Magnus ruled Denmark, 1042-1047. He was succeeded by Svend Estridsen, son of Ulf-Jarl and Estride, sister of Knut (1047-1074). War for seventeen years with Harold Hardrada of Norway was brought to a close in 1064. War with the Wends. Svend raised Denmark to a position of power, which was lost under his five sons who followed him: Harold Heyn (1077-1080), St. Knut (1080-1086), Olaf Hunger (1086-1095), Erik Ejegod (1095-1103), Niels (1105-1135).

Sweden.

Sweden was the first of the Scandinavian kingdoms to attain power. According to tradition there were two races in the country besides the Finns, the Göta or Gauta (Goths) and the Svea. The Svea traced their origin to the followers of Odin. Njord, son of Odin, was the first king of Sweden. His son, Frey Yngve, built the temple of Upp-sala, and founded the line of the Ynglingar, which ruled the Svea until Ingjald Ill-raada so angered the petty kings by his cruelty that they revolted. The king burned himself and his family, and his son Olaf fled to Norway. Ivar Vidfadme, king of Skaania, which was independent before its conquest by Gorm of Denmark, succeeded Ingjald. This was in the seventh century.

In the eighth (?) century falls the mythical battle of Bravalla, where Sigurd Ring, king of Sweden, defeated Harold Hildetand of Denmark. Sigurd's son, Ragnar Lodbrog, is even more famous in story than his father. (Tale of his capture by Ælla of Northumberland, and of his death in a pit of serpents, which his sons avenged by the slaughter of Ælla. See p. 203, where the discrepancy in date is to be

noted.)

In the ninth century authentic history begins. Mission of Ansgarius (829-865) to Sweden, where his preaching met with great success. Erik Emundsson, king of Sweden (died in 885?), made important conquests in the East. At the same time bands of Swedes settled around Novgorod, subjugated the Slavs, and laid the foundation of the future empire of Russia (Varinjar, Russ.).

Olaf the Lap-king (993-1024) was the first Christian king of Sweden. War with St. Olaf of Norway. The last king of the Upsala line was Edmund Gammal (the Old), who died about 1056. Stenkil

(1056-1066).

Norway.

According to tradition Norway was first settled by Olaf Trætelje of the Ynglingar line, who fled from Sweden after the death of his father Ingiald. The country was governed by numerous petty kings, and remained weak and distracted, like Sweden and Denmark, until, as in those countries, a process of consolidation set in in the ninth century. Halfdan the Black (841–863) reduced many of the petty kings to subjection, and his son, Harald Haarfager (863–932), completed the work of conquest and introduced the feudal system. Defeat of the Jarls at Hafurstfjord, 872. These changes, and the repression of free-booting which followed them, induced a great migration of the Jarls, the most famous of the vikings. Establishment of Northmen under Rolf Ganger (Rollo) in Normandy. Conquest of Dublin by Olauf in 852. Discovery and settlement of Iceland, 861–875, etc. Erik Blodöxe (930–934), Hakon (934–961), Harald Graafell, Hakon Jarl (988–995). Olaf Tryggvasson (996–1000). He disappeared at the

battle of Svold, where he was defeated by Olaf the Lap-king of Norway, Svend Tveskæg of Denmark, and Erik and Svend, sons of Hakon Jarl. The victors divided Norway between them.

Discovery and settlement of Greenland by Erik the Red (983). Vinland (America) seen by Bjarne, and visited by Leif and others,

986–1011. See p. 281.

Norway was again united under St. Olaf (II.) 1015–1030, in whose reign Christianity was introduced. Magnus the Good, son of Olaf (1035–1047), king of Denmark from 1042 to 1047. The Graagaas, or book of the law. Harald III., Hardrada, founded Opslo (Christiania), and fell at Stamford Bridge 1066 (p. 206). Magnus II. (1066–1069), Olaf (1069–1093), Magnus III. Barfod (1095–1103). Conquest of the Orkneys and Hebrides; of Dublin. Death of Magnus in Ireland.

§ 5. SPANISH PENINSULA.

756-1031. Caliphate of Cordova,

founded by the last Ommiade, Abd-er-Rahman (p. 183). Most brilliant period of the Moorish civilization, in the ninth and tenth centuries. Abd-er-Rahman III., Hakem II., Almazor, his general. The populous city of Cordova, the seat of science and arts.

1031. Dissolution of the caliphate of Cordova into a number of small states. The *Morabethes* or *Almoravides* (*Yussuf*), summoned from Mauretania, successfully opposed the Christians (1086), but made themselves masters of Mohammedan Spain.

Christian Kingdoms.

Asturia (Oviedo), since the conquest of the country as far as the Duero by Alfonso III. in the tenth century, called the kingdom of Leon, after the new residence, Leon.

Castile, so called from the castles erected against the Arabs, origi-

nally a county of Asturia:

Navarre, a border state in the Pyrenees: first a county under French supremacy, then independent. Sancho I. assumed the title King of Navarre (905), and subjugated

Aragon, originally a Frankish county north of Navarre.

1000-1035. Sancho III. the Great, king of Navarre, and, by inheritance, king of Castile, divided at his death his kingdom among his three sons. As Leon and Castile were soon united, there existed henceforward three Christian kingdoms in Spain: 1, Castile-Leon; 2, Navarre; 3, Aragon. We must also reckon the county of Barcelona, which grew out of the Spanish mark of Charles the Great, and was independent after the time of Charles the Bald.

Wars of Ruy Diaz, called by the Arabs Cid, i. e. Lord (died

1099).

§ 6. THE EAST.

Eastern Empire.

527-565. Justinian I., emperor of the East. Belisarius. Narses (p. 175).

Codification of the law in the form known as the corpus juris civilis (Tribonianus), comprising: 1. Institutiones. 2. Pandectæ or Digesta. 3. Codex. 4. Novellæ, later additions.

Parties of the circus: Greens, Blues, Reds, and Whites. Bloody contests ("Nika," 532). The church of St. Sophia, built by Con-

stantine (Hagia Sophia), burnt and rebuilt with great splendor.

Decline of the empire under Justinian's successors (cruelty, mutilations). A part of the Asiatic and African provinces conquered by the *Persians* and afterwards by the *Arabs*.

726-842. Contest over images. Image-breakers (εἰκονοκλάσται, icon-oclasts) and image worshippers (εἰκονοδοῦλοι).

717-741. Leo the Isaurian. Image worship prohibited.

780-802. Irene, who out of love of power had her own son blinded, restored image worship. The accession of a woman to the imperial throne served as a pretext to legalize the transfer of the imperial crown from the East to the West.

842. Theodora fully restored image worship.

867-1057. Eastern emperors of the Macedonian line.

The empire, hard pressed by Arabs, Bulgarians, and Magyars. The emperors Nicephorus Phocas and John Zimisces, whom Theophano, widow of Romanus II. (died 962), placed on the throne, partially reconquered the provinces which the Arabs and Bulgarians had torn from the empire.

Caliphate of Bagdad under the Abbasides (750-1258).

Immediately after the reigns of Haroun-al-Raschid and Mamun (p. 186), the power of the caliphs began to decline.

935. The Emir al Omra (i. e. prince of princes) received all the secular power; the caliph remained only spiritual head of the faithful.

1058. Seljuk Turks (Togrul Bey, Alp Arslan, Malek Shah) attained the dignity of Emir al Omra. Seljuk supremacy.

1092. The empire of the Seljuks separated into a number of small sultanates (Iran, Kerman, Aleppo, Damascus, Iconium or Roum).

India.

The early history is exceedingly uncertain, and the most important events are assigned dates differing from one another by over four centuries. The Guptas, who succeeded in power the Sahs of Suráshha (60 B. c.-235 A. D.), occupied Kanauj from 319 to about 470, when they were overthrown by Tatar invaders (Huns?), and the Valabhis, who dwelt in Cutch and the northern part of Bombay, were the principal power in India, 480-722.

Actual authentic history begins with the Arabic invasions. Sind was the first province to feel the Mohammedan attack. It was conquered in 711, but in 750 a general uprising expelled the victors.

About 1000–1186. Supremacy of the Sultans of Ghazni.

The next great attack was made by a Turk, Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni, (in Kabul), who invaded India seventeen times, and conquered the country to the Ganges. The decisive struggle took place at Peshawar, where Mahmud was victorious. In 1024 famous expedition to Guzerat. Destruction of the idol pillar filled with jewels. (?) Mahmud was succeeded by fourteen rulers of his house, the last of whom, Bahram, was conquered by Allah-ud-din of Ghor. Bahram's son, Khusru, founded at Lahore the first Mohammedan dynasty in India proper.

1186-1206. Supremacy of the Afghans of Ghor.

In 1186, Khusru's son was made captive by Muhammed Ghori, after which the predominance exercised by the Turks of Ghazni passed into the hands of the Afghans of Ghor. Muhammed Ghori was killed in 1206.

China.

590-618. Dynasty of Suy, under whose energetic sway China was partially rescued from the confusion of the Three Kingdoms (p. 32).

618-907. Dynasty of Tang,

founded by the usurper, Le Yuen, who, as emperor, took the name of Kau-tsu. The first part of this period down to 718 was a brilliant time for China, and the Golden Age of literature. The earlier rulers (Tai-tsung, 627-650; Kaou-tsung, 650-683; Woo How, 683-705, the wife of Kaou-tsung, who usurped the throne on her husband's death) were valiant warriors and wise rulers, who held the Tatars in check, recovered much of the former possessions of China in Central Asia, and raised the empire to a commanding position among other nations; 643, embassies from Persia and Constantinople in China.

From 718 the attacks of the Tatars increased in vehemence. From 763 to 780 their inroads were incessant.

Under Woo-tsung (841-847) temples were destroyed, monasteries and nunneries closed, and all foreign priests (Christian, Persian, Buddhist) banished. The reaction was, however, short-lived. Invention of printing.

- 907-960. Five dynasties (Later Leang, Later Tang, Later Tsin, Later Han, Later Chow) occupied the throne within this period, but the power of each was very limited. In *Ho-nan*, *Sze-chuen*, and other provinces independent states arose.
- 960-976. Chaou-kwang-yin, as emperor, Tai-tsoo, the founder of the dynasty of the Later Sung, fought with success against the Khitan Tatars, who had occupied the whole of Manchuria, establishing there the empire of Hia. Succeeding emperors were less fortunate, and paid tribute to the Tatars (976-1101).

Japan.1

From the reign of Ojin (270-310, p. 33) to the close of the sixth century, the history of Japan is a record of quiet progress in civilization, under the influence of continental intercourse and of increasing wealth. Throughout this period, as before, the Mikados were actual sovereigns and personal commanders. The close of this epoch saw the introduction of Buddhism into Japan and its rapid spread (p. 33).

The seventh century is of surpassing interest in the history of Japan, for then it was that causes long working in silence and unseen resulted in changes subversive of the entire social and political life of the Japanese,—changes which led to the withdrawal of the Mikado from personal intercourse with his subjects behind a veil of formal etiquette and heightened reverence, and to the predominance of the military over the civil power, until the actual government of the country passed from its legal sovereign, the Mikado, into the hands of an usurping military chieftain, thus creating a long-enduring, much misunderstood system of dual government,—changes whose final outcome was a feudal system corresponding to that known to mediæval Europe, which, with its legitimate offspring, oppression, weakness, anarchy, lasted until 1868.

These changes were the following: I. The growth of a numerous court nobility of imperial, and hence of divine, descent. II. The creation of numerous offices of state which became the property of the court nobility. III. The division of the male population into an agricultural and a military class. IV. The separation of state offices into two sections, the civil and the military, and the continuance of each in the hands of one group of noble families.

I. The kugé, or court nobility, owed their numbers to the practice of polygamy, which the necessity of providing against the extinction of a divine dynastic line imposed on the Mikados. They comprise at present one hundred and fifty-five families, which form among themselves larger groups, or clans. Such clans are: the Fujiwara, the most famous of all the kugé; the Sugawara; the Taira (Heike in Chinese characters); the Minamoto (Genji in Chinese characters).

IÍ. In 603 the requirements of a more extensive empire caused the establishment of eight great administrative departments, and of a host of smaller offices, which were filled by members of the kugé, and

gradually became vested in certain families.

III. The demand of the growing empire for increased military efficiency led to the division of the whole male population into two classes: 1. the class of agricultural laborers, comprising all who were unfit for military service; they were relegated to a life of unbroken toil, and were burdened with the annual payment of a quantity of rice sufficient for the support of the 2. military class, the Samurai, which included all the bravest and most intellectual men in Japan. Relieved from the necessity of working by the tax received from the first class, and not overburdened with military duties, these

¹ Griffls, The Mikado's Empire. Reed, Japan. Adams, History of Japan.

men were free to devote themselves to the pursuit of literature and

learning, forming the best element in the nation.

IV. The Fujiwara, increasing in power, gradually absorbed all civil offices, while the military offices were filled from the two families of Taira and Minamoto, better known as Hei and Gen. Thus did the Fujiwara become enervated by the luxury of palace life; thus did the Mikado, while his office gained in respect and reverence by its environment of titled officials, lose all real power, and sink to a mere puppet in the hands of intriguing nobles, to be installed and deposed at will; thus did both emperor and court constantly lose ground before the growing influence of those energetic families to whom were given the active duties of military command. The generals, or Shoguns, became the "Mayors of the Palace" of Japan. So originated the dual government, which was not, as foreigners long thought, a constitutional institution, whereby the civil and military functions of government were vested in the Shōgun or temporal emperor (Tycoon), and the religious functions in the Mikado or spiritual emperor, but an unconstitutional innovation, wherein a subordinate officer had usurped that authority which belonged of right to the only emperor, the Mikado, and whose position that emperor had never recognized.

The natural result of this state of affairs was the evolution of mili-

tary feudalism, whose rise is considered in the next period.

794. The capital of the empire, the home of the Mikado and the

kugé, permanently fixed at Kioto, near Lake Biwa.

1156. Outbreak of war between the families of Gen and Hei (Minamoto and Taira), which had previously shared the military offices in peace.

THIRD PERIOD.

EPOCH OF THE CRUSADES (1096-1270).

§ 1. CRUSADES.

Cause: The pilgrimages of the Christians to the Holy Sepulchre, where St. Helena, mother of Constantine the Great, had built a vault for the Sepulchre and the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, were interrupted after the Fatimites, and yet more after the Seljuks came to power; ill-treatment of the pilgrims.

The hermit *Peter of Amiens* demanded of the Pope Urban II. (1088–1099) assistance in freeing the holy places, and preached the Crusade in Italy (?) and France.¹ Councils of the church at *Piacenza* and *Clermont* in Auvergne (1095). Address by the Pope; unique of the church at the will of Codd.

versal enthusiasm. (It is the will of God!)

The undisciplined bands led by Peter, by the French knight Walter of Pacy, and his nephew Walter Senzaveir (the Penniless), and others, were for the most part, annihilated in Hungary and Bulgaria.

¹ V. Bybel Gesch. des ersten Kreuzzugs, 1841, has shown on conclusive grounds that the idea of the Crusades originated principally with Pope Urban II. It has recently been made doubtful whether Peter of Amiens had been in the Holy Land at all before the first Crusade.

1096-1099. First Crusade. Kingdom of Jerusalem.

Leaders of the first Crusade: Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of lower Lotharingia; his brothers, Baldwin and Eustach; Robert, duke of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror; Robert of Flanders; Stephen of Blois; Raymond IV., count of Toulouse; Hugo of Vermandois, brother of Philip I., king of France; Bohemond of Tarentum, son of Robert Guisgard; his nephew Tancred. They led 200,000 or 300,000 warriors to the East. Bishop Adhemar of Puy, who was the first to take the Cross at Clermont, went with the expedition as papal legate (died 1098). No king took part personally in this Crusade.

The princes went to Constantinople, where all except Raymond did feudal homage to the emperor, Alexius Comnenus. Attack upon

the territory of Kilij Arslan, Sultan of Iconium (or Roum).

1097. Nicæa surrendered to the Grecian emperor after a siege of June. several weeks' duration. Victory of the Crusaders at Dory-July 1. læum over the Sultan Kilij Arslan. Baldwin, separated from the main army, crossed the Euphrates, and conquered a principality for himself in Edesse.

a principality for himself in Edessa.

1097-1098. The main army besieged Antiochia on the Orontes for nine months in vain, but finally the city was betrayed to Bohemund of Tarentum by the Armenian renegade, Firuz

- 1098. (Pyrrhus). Kerboga, the powerful Emir of Mossul, besieged the Crusaders, exhausted through sickness and want, in Antioch, with an immense army. Victorious sally of the Christians (the holy lance!); the Seljuk army defeated and scattered. Long rest of the Crusaders in Antioch and quarrels among them.
- 1099. Expedition along the coast toward Jerusalem. Unsuccessful siege of the fortress of Arcas. In May they advanced beyond Casarea. On the 6th of June the Crusaders, now numbering but 21,500 effective men, beheld the Holy City, which the Fatimites had reconquered from the Seljuks in 1098. After a five weeks' siege,

1099. Storm of Jerusalem.

July 15. Terrible massacre; pilgrimage to the Church of the Resurrection.

Establishment of a feudal kingdom of Jerusalem, chiefly French, with vassal counties: Edessa, Antiochia, and afterwards Tripolis (Assises du royaume de Jérusalem). Three chief officers: Senechal, Connétable, Marshall. Two patriarchs, at Jerusalem and at Antiochia.

Godfrey of Bouillon, Protector of the Holy Sepulchre, defeated the Sultan of Egypt at Ascalon or Gaza. Godfrey died 1100. His brother, Baldwin I., king of Jerusalem. Acre, Trioplis, Berytus (Beirut), Sidon, conquered with the aid of Pisa and Genoa. Baldwin I. (died 1118) was succeeded by Baldwin II. (died 1131), Fueco of Anjou (died 1143), under whom the kingdom of Jerusalem reached its greatest extent, Baldwin III. (died 1162), Amalric (died 1173), Baldwin IV. (died 1185), Baldwin V. (not of age, died 1186), Veit (Guy) of Lusignan.

1147-1149. Second Crusade. Without result.

Cause: Conquest of Edessa by Emadeddin ('Imad-ed-Deen) Zenki, Emir of Mossul (1144). Second conquest and destruction of the city by his son Noureddin (Noor-ed-Deen) (1146). Bernard, ab-

bot of Clairvaux, preached the Crusade.

Conrad III. of Germany and Louis VII. of France started for Palestine; the former from Regensburg (Ratisbon), the latter from Metz, somewhat later. Both armies passed through Hungary to Asia Minor, the German army, being far in advance, entered Phrygia, where it was almost annihilated by want and by the opposition of the Sultan of Iconium, but few regaining Nicæa. With this scanty following Conrad joined the expedition of the French army along the coast, but returned from Ephesus to Constantinople, on account of ill health. Louis and the French nobility took ship from Pamphylia for Antiochia. The common soldiery continued by land to Cilicia, and were completely annihilated by hunger and the enemy. Conrad went from Constantinople to the Holy Land by sea (1148), and in conjunction with the French made an unsuccessful attack on Damascus.

1189-1192. Third Crusade. Conquest of Acre (St. Jean d'Acre), or Ptolemaïs.

Cause: Capture of Veit (Guy) of Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, at Tiberias on the sea of Genezareth. Conquest of Acre and Jerusalem by Saladin (Salah-ed-Deen) (1187), the founder of the dynasty of the Ayoubites in Egypt. He treated the Christians magnani-

mously.

The emperor Frederic I., who in his youth had taken part in the second Crusade, undertook in his old age an expedition from Regensburg (Ratisbon) in the spring of 1189, passed through Hungary, spent the winter in Adrianople, crossed (1190) to Asia Minor, conquered Iconium, and went to Cilicia, where he was drowned in the Calycadnus (Seleph). His son, Frederic of Swabia, led a part of the pilgrims, many having turned back, by way of Tarsus, Antiochia, and Tyrus to Accon (Ptolemais, St. Jean d'Acre). He died (1191) during the siege of this city, which was conducted by the king Guy of Lusignan, who had gained his freedom.

Richard the Lion-Hearted (Cœur-de-Lion), king of England, but French in nationality and language, and Philip II., Augustus (French Auguste, a title of respect which was given him later), king of France, went by sea to the Holy Land (1190), — Richard from Marseilles, Philip from Genoa; participation of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. After a long stay in Sicily and many quarrels the two kings reached Acre, which Lusignan had already besieged for nearly two years.

The city was now soon forced to surrender (July, 1191).

Philip having quarrelled with Richard, returned to France (1191). Heroic deeds (and cruelty) of Richard, who, however, was twice obliged to turn back from before Jerusalem. Armistice with Saladin. The strip of coast from Joppa to Acre given to the Christians; pilgrimages to the holy places permitted. Richard gave Cyprus, which

he had conquered in 1191, as a fief to Veit (Guy) of Lusignan (autumn of 1192), who transferred his title of "King of Jerusalem" to

Henry of Champagne.

Richard on his return suffered a shipwreck at Aquileia, was recognized in Vienna, detained by *Leopold*, duke of Austria, at the command of the emperor Henry VI., kept a prisoner by the emperor thirteen months in *Trifels* (near Annweiler in the county Palatine) and in *Worms*, and released only upon payment of a ransom and rendering homage.¹

1202-1204. Fourth Crusade. Latin empire (1204-1261).

At the instance of Pope Innocent III. (preaching by Fulco of Neuilly) a Crusade directed originally against Egypt was undertaken by powerful French barons, assisted by Baldwin, count of Flanders, and Boniface, marquis of Montferrat. The Crusaders undertook the siege of Zara in Dalmatia, which the king of Hungary had seized, for the Venetians (Doge Henry Dandolo), partly in payment for transport. At the urgent request of Alexius, son of the Eastern emperor Isaac Angelus, who had been dethroned by his brother, a request strongly supported by *Philip of Swabia*, the Crusaders went to Constantinople with the Venetian fleet of 480 sail, captured the city, and replaced Alexius and his father on the throne (1203). The emperor was unable to fulfill his compact with the Crusaders. (Union of the Greek Church with that of Rome; large payments in money.) Contention, during which the city caught fire. Revolt of the Greek populace. (Isaac died.) After the murder of Alexius by the Greeks, second capture of the city, pillage, new conflagration, which consumed many works of ancient literature.

Establishment of the Latin empire (Baldwin, emperor); many coast districts and islands fell to the Venetians; the marquis of Montferrat became king of Thessalonica; French dukes in Athens, Achaia,

etc. Villehardouin, historian of the expedition.

Establishment of a Greek empire at Nicæa by Theodore Lascaris, and a second, the empire of Trebizond on the coast of the Pontus Euxinus, by a descendant of the Comnenes. Michael Palæologus, of the Nicæan empire, put an end to the Latin empire in 1261.

1212. The children's Crusade. Thousands of German and French boys started for the Holy Land. Many died on the way, many

were sold into slavery.

1217. Crusade of Andrew II., king of Hungary, without result.

1218-1221. Unsuccessful attack upon Egypt under John of Brienne, "king of Jerusalem."

1228-1229. Fifth Crusade. Jerusalem regained for a short time.

Frederic II., emperor of the West, who was under the papal ban

¹ It is probable that the story of the Austrian banner having been trodden in the filth at Acre by Richard's command is not a fable (cf. **Treeche**, Kaiser Heinrich, VI. pp. 256, 558), but the imprisonment of Richard had doubtless higher political motives, and is sufficiently explained by the alliance of Richard with the Welfic party in Germany, see p. 223.

for not having fulfilled his promise of undertaking a Crusade, went to Acre by sea, and received Jerusalem (where he crowned himself), Nazareth, and a strip of land reaching to the coast, together with Sidon, from Sultan Kameel (El Kámil), on condition of a ten years' armistice. Jerusalem was lost again, and finally, 1244.

1248-1254. Sixth Crusade. Without result.

Louis IX., king of France (St. Louis), went to Cyprus and passed the winter there. In order to destroy the Saracen power in its stronghold of Egypt, he went in the spring of 1249 to Damietta and captured the city. On the expedition which he undertook in November against Cairo, Louis was defeated by the Ayoubite Sultan Toorán-sháh (Almoadan), cut off from Damietta, and captured with the entire French army (April, 1250). The execution of the treaty of peace, whereby the king was to be liberated on condition of evacuating Darmietta and paying a heavy ransom, was delayed by the overthrow of the Ayoubites by the Mamelukes. Louis coasted along Palestine, fortified Acre and other cities of the coast, in the course of a residence of almost four years, and returned to France in 1254. 1268. Antiochia lost to the Mohammedans.

1270. Seventh Crusade. Without result.

Louis IX. went to *Tunis*, where he and the greater part of the army were carried off by sickness.

1291. Acre (Ptolemaïs) stormed by the Mamelukes; the Christians abandoned their last possessions in Palestine (Tyre, Berytus, Sidon).

The Crusades were the greatest events of the Middle Age. In spite of the excesses and cruelties of many of the Crusaders they lend to the time to which they belong an ideal, a religious character.

Results of the Crusades: 1. Increased power and authority of the Church and the Papacy. 2. Increase of the personal power of princes, owing to the reversion of many feudal holdings which became vacant. 3. Rise of independent communities, who bought their freedom from their overlords who needed funds for the pilgrimage. 4. Development of commerce. The Italian republics at the height of their power. 5. Intellectual growth resulting from the new ideas brought back from the East; especial advance in the knowledge of geography and natural history. 6. Perfection of the institution of knighthood (chivalry); the three

Religious Orders of Knighthood.

1. Knights of St. John, or Hospitalers; i. e. knights of the hospital of St. John in Jerusalem, founded by merchants from Amalfi, 1048. The brotherhood was enlarged after the first Crusade (Gerhard), and converted into an order of knighthood after the manner of the Templars (Raimund Dupuis). Black mantle, white cross. The order was transferred to Cyprus (1291), to Rhodes (1310), whence they were called Knights of Rhodes. Rhodes lost, 1522; in 1526 the order received a gift of Malta from the emperor Charles V., thence called Knights of Malta.

2. Knights of the Temple or Templars (from the temple of Šolomon,

on whose site stood the house of the order in Jerusalem), originating in a union of nine French knights in 1118 (Hugo de Payens). White mantle, red cross. In 1291 the order was transferred to Cyprus; in 1312 dissolved by Pope Clement V. at the Council of Vienne.

3. The Order of Teutonic Knights, originally brotherhood of the German hospital founded in 1128 (?) in Jerusalem, raised to an order of knighthood by Frederic of Swabia before Acre, during the third Crusade. White mantle, black cross. Seat of the order at Acre. Under the grand master Hermann of Salza a band of knights went to Prussia, then occupied by the heathen Wends, in 1226. Hermann of Balk, first Landmeister in Prussia, which was subjugated by bloody wars (1226–1283). In 1291 the seat of the grand master was transerred to Venice, 1309 to Marienburg, 1457 to Königsberg. The land of the order was secularized in 1525. Those knights who remained Catholic maintained possession of the German estates. Residence of the grand master at Mergentheim at Franconia. The order was dissolved in 1809. In all three orders, knights, priests, brothers in service.

§ 2. GERMANY AND ITALY.

1125-1137. Lother of Sexony,

supported by his son-in-law Henry the Proud, duke of Bavaria, of the house of Welf, whom he later appointed duke of Saxony as well, and Berthold, duke of Zähringen. Lothar fought (until 1135) against the two powerful Hohenstaufens, Frederic, duke of Swabia, and Conrad, nephew of the last emperor, Henry V. Their father was Frederic of Büren and Staufen, son-in-law of the emperor Henry IV. (p. 200).

1132-1133. On his first Roman expedition Lothar was crowned by Pope Innocent II., and accepted the allodial possessions of

Matilda of Tuscany as a fief from the Pope.

1136-1137. On his second Roman expedition Lothar attacked the Norman Roger II., who had assumed the title of king of the two Sicilies, and drove him for a short time to Sicily. On his return

Lothar died at Breitenwang in upper Bavaria (Dec. 3-4, 1137).

Under Lothar's reign German influence made great advances in the North and East. The Danish king Magnus recognized anew the overlordship of the Emperor; Bohemia did feudal homage. The Wends were driven back, and in increasing numbers converted to Christianity. Holstein given to Adolf, count of Schaumburg, the margravate of Meissen to Conrad of Wettin, the Nordmark or Altmark, at the mouth of the Havel and on the left bank of the Elbe, to Albert the Bear, of the house of Ballenstädt or Askania (1134), who had done Lothar important service on the first Roman expedition. Albert crossed the Elbe and conquered almost the entire Mittelmark, which then received the name of Brandenburg, from its chief city.

1138-1254. House of Hohenstaufen (Staufer), so called from the castle of Staufen in Swabia.

1138-1152. Conrad III.,

elected by the party opposed to the Saxon house, without participation of the Saxons and Bavarians.

War of the Ghibellines (Italian corruption of Waiblingen, the name of a castle of the Hohenstaufens) and the Welfs, or Guelfs

(cf. the genealogical table).

Conrad put Henry the Proud under the ban, and gave Saxony to Albert the Bear, and Bavaria to Leopold IV., markgraf of Austria.

1139. During the changing fortunes of the war Henry the Proud died. The claims of his ten-year-old son *Henry* (afterwards called the Lion) to Saxony were maintained by the latter's mother and grandmother and their connection. Bavaria was claimed by Welf VI., brother of Henry the Proud. Welf advanced to the relief of the city of Weinsberg, which Conrad besieged. In the

1140. Battle 2 of Weinsberg Conrad conquered, and the city was compelled to surrender. ("The Faithful Wives of Weinsberg,"

poem by Bürger.)
After the death of Leopold of Austria (Oct. 18, 1141), Bavaria fell to his brother, Henry Jasomirgott, who married Gertrude, Henry the Proud's widow (1142). Her son, Henry the Lion, received Saxony. Albert the Bear gave up his claim to Saxony; the mark of Brandenburg, which was a fief held directly from the emperor (Reichsunmittelbar), and his other possessions, which his enemies had occupied, were restored to him.

Conrad's Crusade (p. 215). Conrad, whose eldest son, Henry, who had already been elected king, died before him, appointed as his successor not his second son, a minor, but his nephew, Frederic of Swabia, who was unanimously elected by the princes. Conrad died Feb. 11, 1152, at Bamberg.

1152-1190. Frederic I., Barbarossa,

one of the most heroic figures of the Middle Age.

Diet at Merseburg. Frederic settled the disputed succession to the Sven became king of Denmark as a vassal of the Danish crown.

empire (1152).

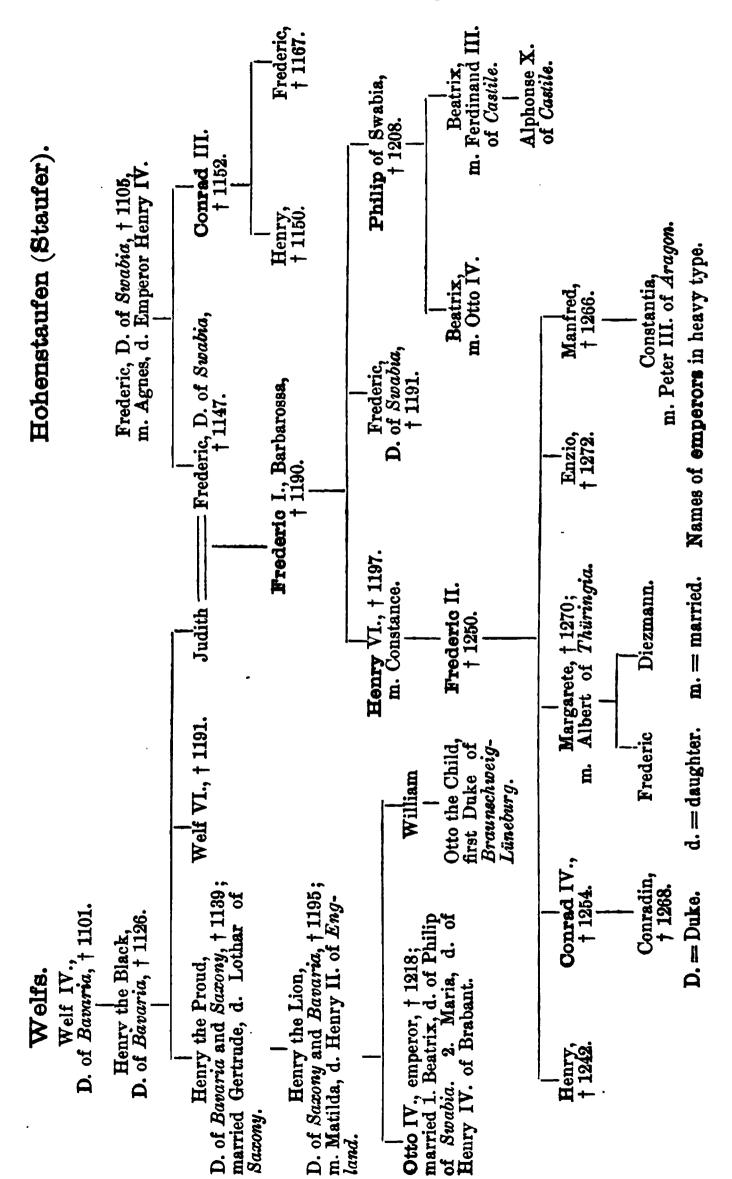
Frederic's main object was to make good the imperial authority, and in particular to restore the imperial rights in northern Italy, which had become narrowed by neglect. Hence war with the powerful republican cities of Lombardy. Six expeditions to Italy.

1154–1155. First expedition. Frederic destroyed some small places which opposed him, and was crowned king of Italy in Pavia,

² Recent investigators deny that the cry of Hie Welf! Hie Waiblingen! was heard here for the first time.

8 So called from his favorite oath.

¹ V. Raumer, Gesch. der Hohenstaufen u. ihrer Zeit; Jaffé, Gesch. des d. R. unter Konrad III.; Prutz, Geschichte Friedrichs I.



and emperor at Rome by Hadrian IV., who had appealed to him for aid against the Romans. Arnold of Brescia, scholar of the schoolman Abelard, a popular preacher, who inveighed against the secular power of the clergy and possession of estates by the church, was condemned and burnt.

1153. Convention of Constance between Frederic and the Papal Sec.

1156. Henry the Lion received Bavaria again. Austria was separated from Bavaria, and raised to a duchy, hereditary in the female as well as the male line.

1157. Diet at Würzburg. Nearly all the states of the West did homage to the imperial power (Holy Roman Empire). In Besançon the Burgundian nobles submitted again to the empire. The Bohemian duke Vladislav received from Frederic the royal crown.

1158-1162. Second expedition to Italy. The Lombard cities, including Milan itself, submitted. At the diet on the Roncalian Fields the rights of the emperor were defined as against the cities. Jurisdiction in the cities transferred from the consuls to an officer of the empire, the Podesta. Prohibition of the right of private war between the cities. The Milanese revolted. Quarrel between the Pope and the emperor. Tedious war with Milan, which surrendered after a two years' siege. At the emperor's command

1162. Milan was destroyed by the inhabitants of the neighboring cities.

1159-1177. Schism in the Church. Alexander III. elected by the majority of the cardinals, Victor IV. by the minority (who favored the emperor), and recognized by the council which Frederic convened at Pavia. Alliance between Alexander III. and the Lombard cities.

1163. Third Expedition without an army. After the death of Victor III. (April, 1164), a new anti-pope, Paschal III., was elected by the imperial party. New disturbances in Italy soon broke out.

1166-1168. Fourth Expedition. Paschal III. conducted to Rome by Frederic.

1167. Lombard League between the cities of Lombardy (Cremona, Bergamo, Brescia, Mantua, and Ferrara) and the cities of the Veronese March (Verona, Vicenza, Padua, Treviso), which had united in 1164. Union of Guelfs with Ghibelins. They rebuilt Milan, built Alessandria (so called after their ally, Pope Alexander III.), and occupied the passes of the Alps. The emperor, whose army was almost annihilated by a plague which broke out in Rome, with difficulty escaped to Germany.

In Germany a great feud had been raging since 1166 between Henry the Lion and his enemies, the archbishops of Magdeburg and Bremen, Albert the Bear, Otto of Meissen, etc. The emperor put an end to the strife at the Diet of Bamberg (1168). Henry the Lion

undertook a pilgrimage to Jerusalem (1172).

1174-1177. Fifth Expedition. The emperor entered Lombardy over Mont Cenis. He besieged Alessandria in vain. Henry

the Lion deserted him and returned to Germany. The emperor attacked the Lombards, but in spite of his heroic courage, at the

1176. Battle of Legnano, was completely defeated. Negotiations and armistice with Alexander III. and the Lombard cities.

1177. Reconciliation between the emperor and the Pope at Venice.

1183. The definitive peace with the Lombard cities was concluded at Constance. The emperor renounced all regal privileges which he had hitherto claimed in the towns; acknowledged the right of the confederated cities to levy armies, to fortify themselves, and to exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction. By the popular nomination the consuls acquired the rights of imperial vicars. The extension of the confederacy for the purpose of maintaining these rights was authorized. The cities agreed to maintain all just rights of the emperor, a recognition of the overlordship of the emperor, which, however, they were allowed to redeem by an annual payment.

Henry the Lion humbled in Germany. After his neglect to appear at four diets, he was put under the ban of the empire and his fiefs declared forfeited (1180). He defended himself bravely and defeated the archbishop of Cologne. Upon the approach of the emperor Henry's vassals gradually deserted him. Henry threw himself at the emperor's feet in Erfurt (1181), but was allowed to retain his allodial estates only, Braunschweig (Brunswick) and Lüneburg. Division of the old duchy of Saxony. Part of Westphalia was given to the archbishopric of Cologne. Lübeck, Hamburg, and Bremen became in the course of time free cities, owing allegiance to the empire only. The archbishop of Magdeburg and Bremen, the bishops of Halberstadt, Hildesheim, Lübeck, etc., the counts of Holstein and Oldenburg, etc., became immediate vassals of the empire.

Eastern Saxony and the ducal title were given to Bernard of Askania, son of Albert the Bear. Otto of Wittelsbach received Bavaria. Henry the Lion was obliged to leave the country for three years. He went to the court of Henry II. of England, his father-in-law.

1184. Brilliant court festival at Mainz.

1184-1186. Sixth expedition to Italy (peaceful). The emperor gave his son Henry, who was now twenty-one, but had long

1186. been king elect of Germany, in marriage to Constance, daughter of Roger II., aunt and heiress of William II., the last Norman king of Naples and Sicily.

1190. Frederic's crusade and death (p. 215). His son, King Henry, whom he left behind as vicegerent, was obliged to take the field against Henry the Lion, who, upon the emperor's departure, had been sent out of the empire for another three years, but had since returned from England. The death of William II. of Sicily in November, 1189, led Henry to come to an understanding with Henry the Lion. In the mean time came the news of the emperor's death.

1190-1197. Henry VI., a highly educated statesman, but stern and relentless.

1191. First expedition to Italy. Henry received the imperial crown at

Rome, after he had abandoned Tusculum, which had ever been true to his father, to the Romans. The city was destroyed; Frascati grew up near its site. Henry went to Naples to rescue the inheritance of his wife, Constance, from Tancred of Lecce, whom the native party in Palermo had elected king. Unsuccessful siege of Naples for three months. Sickness in the army compelled the emperor to return to Germany.

1192-1194. New war with Henry the Lion, who had not kept the first treaty. The war ended in a compromise, the conclusion of which was assisted by the liberation of the brother-in-law of Henry the Lion, Richard Cœur-de-Lion of England (p. 216), and by a marriage between Agnes, daughter of the emperor's uncle, Conrad, count palatine of the Rhine, with Henry, son of Henry the Lion.

1194. Second expedition to Italy, where Tancred had died. War with his widow and his son William. The emperor subjugated the kingdom of the two Sicilies, and punished with severity the participants in a conspiracy against himself.

1194. Henry threatened with excommunication for withholding the

estates of Matilda (p. 200) from the Pope.

1196. Diet at Würzburg. Henry's plan of making Germany (united with the Sicilies) an hereditary monarchy, on condition that all fiefs should become hereditary, even in the female line, failed in consequence of the resistance of the princes and the lesser nobility.

1197. Third expedition to Italy. Henry suppressed a second conspiracy with cruel severity. In the midst of his great plans (conquest of the Eastern Empire, Crusade), he died suddenly in Messina, thirty-two years old (28 Sept. 1197). Double election in Germany.

- 1198-1208. Philip of Swabia, youngest son of Frederic Barbarossa.
- 1198-1215 (1218). Otto IV. of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion.
- and of Welf. Otto IV., recognized by Pope Innocent III., was defeated by Philip and his power reduced almost to the limits of Brunswick. In the midst of preparations for a last and decisive combat Philip was assassinated at Bamberg by the count palatine Otto of Wittelsbach. Otto IV. was universally recognized and crowned at Rome by Innocent III. (1209), after having abandoned the estates of Matilda to the papal chair and made other concessions. He was soon involved in a quarrel with the Pope, however, and the latter put forward his ward Frederic, son of Henry VI., as anti-emperor (1212). Otto IV., in alliance with England, was defeated at Bouvines (near Lille) by Philip II. Augustus (1214), and returned to his own domains. Died at the Harzburg (May 10, 1218).
- 1212-1250. Frederic II. also king of the two Sicilies,
- a prince of remarkable gifts, but passionate, more Italian than German, having been born in Sicily and educated by his Italian

mother. He was an energetic opponent of the spiritual supremacy, having indeed but little liking for the church; in his hereditary estates he favored the Saracens.

1215. Frederic went to Germany, was crowned German king in Aachen, where he promised to undertake a crusade, and

1217. gave Swabia to his young son Henry, and

1220. had him elected king of Rome (the title given to the German king elect). Frederic left Germany for fifteen years. Expedition to Rome. After renewing the promises which he had formerly made to Pope Innocent III. (feudal supremacy of the papal chair over his hereditary domain, which should never be united with Germany, crusade), he was crowned by Honorius III. at Rome.

1222. The emperor's son *Henry*, solemnly crowned king at Aachen. His chief adviser and chancellor was *Engelbert*, archbishop of

Cologne (murdered 1225).

1225. Frederic took as his second wife, Iolanthe, daughter of John of Brienne, titulary king of Jerusalem. Promise of a crusade renewed.

1226. Diet at Cremona; quarrels with the Lombard cities.

1227. The Crusade which had been commenced was broken up by a contagious disease. The successor of Pope Honorius III., the octogenarian Gregory IX., placed the emperor under the ban.

1227. Battle of Bornhövede. The Danes, who under Waldemar II. had extended their power over the coasts of the Baltic, were decisively defeated.

1228-1229. Crusade of Frederic II. (p. 216).

1229. Frederic drove from his dominions the papal (key) troops, who had invaded them.

1230. Peace with the Pope at S. Germano. Removal of the ban.

1230-1240. Legislation of Frederic in his Sicilian kingdom.

Regulation of feudal relations. Representation of the cities.

German nobility and the Lombard cities, against his father, suppressed by Frederic with the aid of the princes of the empire and the imperial cities. Henry submitted, was kept in strict confinement, then sent to Italy, where he died, 1242. Reconciliation with the Welfs. Erection of a new duchy, Brunswick-Lüneburg, for Otto the Child. Third marriage of the emperor at Worms with Isabella, sister of Henry III. of England. Diet at Mainz. Enactment of a public peace (first publication of a law in German as well as in Latin).

1236. Victorious campaign against the Lombards. In Germany Frederic the Warlike of Austria, a follower of the rebel Henry,

deposed and put under the ban.

1237. Frederic II. in Vienna, which was proclaimed an imperial city. Afterwards Frederic the Warlike received Austria and Styria again.

1237. Diet at Speier. Election and coronation of Conrad, the sec-

ond son of the emperor as German king.

1237. Brilliant victory of Frederic over the Lombards at Corte-Nov. nuova. Frederic's obstinacy in pressing his demands too far, prevented the complete subjugation of Lombardy. Interference of the Pope, who had claims on Sardinia, and was offended at the assumption by Frederic's natural son *Enzio* (an Italian corruption of *Heinz*), the husband of *Adelisa*, heiress of a part of the island, of the title of *king of Sardinia*.

1239-1250. War of Frederic II. with the Popes Gregory IX. and

Innocent IV.

1239. Frederic accused of heresy by Gregory and excommunicated

anew. Ancona conquered by Enzio.

1241. Naval victory of Enzio at Elba over the Genovese fleet which was conveying some ecclesiastics to the council at Rome. Death of Gregory. His successor, Innocent IV. (1243-1254), fled to Lyons.

Germany threatened with a Mongol invasion (p. 240).

Innocent IV. called a council at

1245. Lyons, renewed the ban against the emperor, formally deposed him, summoned the German princes to a new election, and urged all subjects of the emperor to revolt. In Ger-

many the spiritual princes elected

- 1246-1247. Heinrich Raspe, landgrave of Thuringia, who, though at first victorious, was defeated by Conrad, Frederic's son, at Ulm, and died (1247) at the Wartburg. The house of the landgraves of Thuringia ending with Heinrich Raspe, the eastern part of that state was joined to the margravate of Meissen, while the western part became the landgravate Hessen.
- 1247-1256. William of Holland, second anti-king, attained no authority in Germany.
- 1248. Frederic, at first successful in Italy, was repulsed before Padua. His son *Enzio* was captured by the Bolognese in the
- 1249. Battle of Fossalta (died after an imprisonment of twenty-two years in a dungeon).

 Treason (?) of Peter of Vinea (Vineis), Frederic's chancellor.

1250. Frederic died in Fiorentino in the arms of his son Manfred

(Dec. 19). He was succeeded by his son

1250-1254. Conrad IV. (anti-king: William of Holland) fought since 1252 for his hereditary realm only, in Italy.

1256. William of Holland fell in battle with the Frisians (twenty-seven years old).

1256-1273. Interregnum in Germany. Club-law, Faustrecht.

Count Richard of Cornwall, younger son of King John (Lackland) of England, elected by a part of the princes, and crowned at Aachen, was recognized along the Rhine only (died 1272). Alphonso X. of Castile, grandson of Philip of Hohenstaufen, son of Frederic Barbarossa, elected by the other princes, never came to Germany.

In the kingdom of the two Sicilies the brave Manfred, son of Frederic II., was at first chancellor for the minor king Conradin, con of Conrad IV., afterwards (1258) king. Charles of Anjou, brother

of Louis IX. of France, to whom the Pope gave the crown, defeated Manfred, who was betrayed by his barons, at Beneventum (1266), and made himself king of Naples and Sicily. Manfred fell on the field.

Conradin went to Italy with Frederic of Baden, also called Frederic of Austria (being the son of the Babenberg heiress of Austria). He was defeated between Scurcola and Tagliacozzo on Lago di Celano (1268), and executed at Naples.

1282. Sicilian vespers, so called because the conspiracy broke out on Easter Monday at vesper time. Slaughter of all the French in Sicily. John of Procida. Peter of Aragon, king of Sicily,

Charles of Anjou limited to the kingdom of Naples.

§ 3. FRANCE.1

The royal domain of the Capetians was at first limited to the duchy of France (Isle de France and Orléanais). The great vassals, who were, in the beginning, almost independent, were gradually reduced to submission in this and the following period.

1060-1108. Philip I. Quarrel with Gregory VII. First Crusade. A long reign, in which the king accomplished nothing.

1108-1137. Louis VI., the Fat, an able and good king, who had, moreover, the good sense to avail himself of the talents of Suger, abbot of St. Denis, whom he made minister. Perceptible growth of the royal power. Marriage of the king's son, Louis (VII.), with Eleanor, daughter of William of Aquitaine, heiress of Poitou, Guyenne, and Gascoyne.

weak king, a favorite with the clergy, whose reign was less disastrous than might have been expected, because of the influence of Suger, who administered the kingdom during Louis' absence in the East. After his return Louis obtained a divorce from Eleanor, who married Henry of Anjou, conveying to this prince, who soon became king of England, Poitou, Guyenne and Gascoyne, for which Henry did homage to Louis. In this transfer lay one germ of the hundred years' war.

1180-1223. Philip II., Augustus,

one of the ablest of the kings of France; unscrupulous, cold, but of great political sagacity. (Third) Crusade with Richard Cœurde-Lion. After Philip's return in 1190 he attacked Normandy, but made little headway during the lifetime of Richard. (Erection of the Château Gaillard by Richard, on the Seine, above Rouen.)

After Richard's death (1199) Philip took up the claims of Arthur, son of Richard's brother Geoffrey, who had been passed over in Normandy in favor of Richard's younger brother John, but he was hindered from prosecuting them by his quarrel with Innocent III. in relation to the divorce which Philip had secured from his wife, Ingeborg of Denmark, in order that he might marry Agnes of Meran. Submission of Philip (1200).

After the death of Arthur (1203) Philip moved upon Normandy

1 Kitchin, History of France.

anew. Rejection of the Pope's claim to arbitrate between the kings. The fall of the Château Gaillard was followed by the submission of Normandy (1204). John having refused to obey the summons of Philip to appear for trial on account of the murder of Arthur, Philip declared his fiefs forfeited.

Crusade against the Albigenses, Waldenses and Cathari, rationalist sects protected by Raymond, count of Toulouse, and the viscount of Beziers and Carcassonne (1207-1244). Storm of Beziers (1207. "Slay all, God will know his own."). Conquest of the county of Toulouse by Simon of Montfort (1211-1215). Death of Simon at the siege of revolted Toulouse (1217).

War in Flanders with the feudal lords, supported by John of England and Otto of Germany. Philip, assisted by the cities, victorious in

the

1214. **Battle of Bouvines:**

Aug. 29. Unsuccessful expedition of Philip's son Louis to England (1216).

1223-1226. Louis VIII. New crusade against the count of Toulouse, whose lands had been declared forfeit.

1229. Establishment of the Inquisition as a regular tribunal by Pope Gregory IX., inquisitors having existed since 1203 under Innocent III.

1226–1270. Louis IX., St. Louis.

During the king's minority regency of his mother Blanche, who repressed a revolt of the barons. The war with the Albigenses ended by the extermination of the sect (1244). (Sixth) Crusade of St. Louis (p. 217). Blanche regent during his absence. After the king's return, 1254, wise government. Surrender of Périgord, the Limousin and southern Saintonge to Henry of England, whereupon Henry renounced his claim to Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Poitou, northern Saintonge. Prohibition of wager of battle. Limitation of feudal jurisdiction. Establishment of right of appeal to the king from the feudal courts in all cases. The Pragmatic Sanction attributed to St. Louis is probably a forgery, but Louis' attitude toward Rome was one of assertion of all regal rights.

During this reign the domain of the crown received the following additions: The part of the county of Toulouse between the Rhône, the sea and the Pyrenees (1229), Chartres, Blois, Sancerre, ceded by Theobald of Champagne and Navarre (1234); Macon, by purchase (1239); Perche (1257); Arles, Forcalquier, Foix and Cahors (1262).

Second (seventh) Crusade and death of St. Louis (1270).

ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS FROM ECGBEHRT TO HENRY III.

ANGLO-SAXON. Ecgbehrt. Charles the Bald. 802-837. Emperor. FLANDERS. Æthelwulf = (1) Judith, who afterwards m. 837-858. (2) Æthelbald. (3): Baldwin L † 879. Æthelbald. Æthelbehrt. Æthelred. Baldwin II. Allfred. † 918. 858-860. 860-866. 866-871. 871-901. NORMANDY. Eadward 1 son, 2 dau. Ælfthryth = Rollo. Arnulf I. † 965. the Elder. 901-925. William Baldwin (III.) Longsword. † 962. Æthelstan. Eadmund. Eadred. 925-940. 940-946. 946-955. Arnulf II. Richard Eadwig. 955-959. Eadgar. 959-975. the Fearless. † 988. Baldwin IV. Æthelred II.=2 Emma. Richard † 1036-Eadward the Martyr. 975-978. 978-1016. the Good. 2 1 Godwine Earl of Mercia. Eadward Robert Baldwin V. Eadmund Harold. Eadgyth = the Confessor. the Magnificent † 1067. Ironsides. 1016. 1066. 1042-1066. or the Devil. William the Conqueror = Matilda. Eadward 1066-1087. Eadgar Ætheling. Margaret = = Malcolm king of Scots. William Rufus. Henry I. Robert. Eadgar king of Scots. 1087-1100. 1100-1135. m.Stephen Matilda c. of Blois. Matilda = Geoffrey of Anjou, Stephen 1135-1154. Plantagenet. Henry II. 1154-1189. Henry. Richard John Lackland. Geoffrey. Cœur-de-Lion. 1199-1216 1189-1199. Arthur. † 1203. Henry III. 1216-1272.

§ 4. ENGLAND.

1066-1154. Norman kings.1

1066-1087. William I., the Conqueror,

completed the subjection of the Anglo-Saxons, who were robbed of their estates and terribly ill-treated. Two nationalities and two languages existed for a long time side by side in England, English, or Anglo-Saxon, and French. The king and the nobility were French Normans or Frenchmen.

The submission of 1066 was partial, Mercia and Northumbria remaining aloof.

1068. Revolt in the north, incited and aided by a Danish fleet under Swegen. Returning from Normandy William bought off the Danes, and crushed the insurgents by a masterly winter campaign. Northumberland ravaged with fire and sword.

1071. Revolt of the English under Eadwin and Morkere, which ended with the defeat and death of Eadwin, and the capture of Ely in the fens where Morkere had taken refuge with the outlaw Hereward.

1075-76. Rebellion of the Norman barons in England easily crushed. Revolt of the conqueror's son Robert in Normandy (1077-1080). Imprisonment of William's brother, Odo, bishop of Bayeux, for troublesome and intriguing conduct. A threatened invasion from Norway and Denmark averted, 1085. William met his death by accident while engaged in a struggle with Philip of France about the Vexin (Sept. 9, 1087). After the revolt of

the largest political division. Sheriffs appointed by the king in each shire. William introduced feudalism in its continental form, placing Norman barons over the lands of the English nobility, who gradually sank to the position of a middle class. In 1086 the power of the barons was weakened by the exaction of an oath of fealty from all under tenants to the king direct. The same year saw the completion of the great survey whose results were inscribed in the Domesday Book, an inventory of all lands "burthened with special dues to the crown." The lower local courts were preserved, but their subordination to the king's court was strongly insisted on.

William reformed and reorganized the English Church, assisted by Lanfranc, abbot of St. Stephen at Caen, whom he appointed archbishop of Canterbury. Homage to the Pope, however, William expressly refused to render. He kept the appointment of bishops in his own hands. No papal letter could be received, no papal synod held in England, no English bishop appeal to Rome without the king's consent.

¹ Augustin Thierry, Histoire de la conquête de l'Angleterre. Green, History of the English People.

1087-1100. William II., the Red,

second son of William I. obtained the English crown, while Robert, the eldest son, succeeded in Normandy. A revolt of the Norman barons in favor of Robert was suppressed by help of the English in 1090. Death of Lanfranc, 1089. Ascendency of Ranulf Flambard. Extortions of William. Formation of the New Forest.

1093. Anselm, abbot of Bec, appointed archbishop of Canterbury. He was soon involved in a quarrel with the king on the question of investitures and on other matters. In 1097 Anselm appealed to Rome and left England.

1097. Edgar, son of Margaret (sister of Eadgar Aetheling), obtained the Scottish crown, thus closing the civil war in Scotland between the Celtic and English parties. William was found dead in the New Forest, Aug. 2, 1100 (murdered?).

1100-1135. Henry I., Beauclerc,

on learning of the death of William II., hastened to England and secured the crown in spite of the opposition of those barons who pressed the claim of *Robert* of Normandy, then returning from the Crusade. Issue of a charter, wherein the exactions and abuses of William the Red were prohibited and the "Law of Edward the Confessor" restored.

Henry married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland, and Margaret, sister of Eadgar Aetheling. Recall of Anselm.

of the Norman barons on both sides of the Channel, ended by treaty without a battle. Punishment of the rebel barons. Robert of Belesme, earl of Shrewsbury, driven from England. In 1104 Henry invaded Normandy. Robert was defeated at the

1106. Battle of Tinchebrai and kept in captivity until his death (1134). Henry took possession of Normandy.

Quarrel with Anselm in regard to investitures, ending, after the exile and return of Anselm, in a compromise (1106). Introduction of the Cistercians in England. Suppression of the great feudatories and substitution of a class of lesser nobles. Death of Henry's son William by the sinking of the "White Ship" in the Channel (1120). Marriage of Henry's daughter Matilda to Geoffrey, son of Fulk the Black, count of Anjou (1128). Normandy and Maine definitely secured by Henry. Henry died 1135.

1135-1154. Stephen of Blois,

son of Adela, daughter of William I., and the count of Blois, seized the crown in defiance of the rights of Matilda and her son Henry, and was elected at London principally by the citizens. Charter of Oxford (1136). (Second) invasion of the Scots repulsed in the

1138. Battle of the Standard,

at Cowton Moor in Yorkshire. Arrest of Roger of Salisbury and the bishop of Lincoln (1139). In the same year Matilda landed

in England. Stephen defeated and captured at the battle of Lincoln (1141). Matilda was elected Lady of England by the clergy. Her severe and impolitic government soon alienated her followers. Finally Stephen, having been exchanged, took up the war again, which went on with varying success until 1147 when Robert of Gloucester died and Matilda left England. In 1153 Henry of Anjou landed in England to make good his claim. Without a battle an understanding was reached and Henry was recognized as the heir of the crown (Treaty of Wallingford 1153).

The reign of Stephen was one of the darkest periods in English history. His weakness, and the confusion of civil war had given the feudal nobles full liberty. Castles were erected in great numbers throughout England, and each was the home of oppression and

cruelty. Stephen died 1154.

1154-1399. House of Anjou (Plantagenet)¹ in the direct line.

1154-1189. Henry II.

Outside of England Henry possessed: 1. Normandy and the suzerainty over Bretagne, as the heir of the Norman kings. 2. Anjou and Maine, inherited from his father. 3. Poitou, Guyenne and Gascogne, acquired by marriage with *Eleanor* of Aquitaine (1152); in all more than half of France.

The reign of Henry is the period of full amalgamation of the Eng-

lish and the Normans.

The accession of Henry (at 21 years of age) was welcomed as the beginning of a better time. Banishment of the mercenaries maintained by Stephen. Demolition of the castles. Resumption and restoration of estates, which was attended with difficulty, some of the new nobles requiring to be dislodged by force.

1158. First Welsh war not successful.

1162. Thomas Becket, the chancellor, made archbishop of Canterbury. Reëstablishment of the Exchequer, a bureau for assessing and collecting the taxes. Introduction of scutage, a commutation in money for personal service in the army permitted to the lower tenants.

1163. Second Welsh war.

As chancellor, Becket had been the king's servant and friend; as archbishop, he became at once his opponent, resisting his wishes even in financial matters; an opposition which seems to have led to the abolition of Danegeld (p. 205). Becket bitterly opposed the king's reform of the ecclesiastical law relating to the punishment of ecclesiastical punishment had been administered the offender should be handed over to receive the punishment of the civil law. The wishes of the king in this respect and on other points involving church and state were formulated in the

¹ So called from the bit of broom (*genêt*) which Geoffrey of Anjou, son of king Fulk of Jerusalem (p. 230), was wont to wear in his helm.

1164. Constitutions of Clarendon.

The jurisdiction of secular courts over clerical offenders was affirmed, appeal to Rome in such cases was prohibited, the election of bishops in the presence of royal officers, and with the king's consent, was insisted on, as was the investiture of the bishop or abbot elect with his secular lands by the king. At first Becket accepted the constitutions; but afterwards he withdrew his acceptance and appealed to Rome. Brought to trial and condemned on some matters connected with his chancellorship, Becket fled to France.

1165. Third Welsh war.

or mutual responsibility of the inhabitants of a village. In each shire criminals were to be presented by twelve men from the shire and four from each town (grand jury); abolition of compurgation (proof of innocence by oath of neighbors) for which the ordeal or judgment of God was substituted.

1170. Henry under threat of interdict was reconciled with Becket, who returned to England. He soon became embroiled with the king, and was murdered by four knights of Henry's court, in consequence of Henry's passionate outbreak against him (December

29, 1170).

Establishment of itinerant or circuit judges. Court of appeal,

afterwards the great and privy council.

1171. Expedition of Henry to Ireland. A bull of Adrian IV. in 1157 had given this country to Henry, but no use had been made of the authority until Dermod, king of Leinster, fled to Henry, did him homage, and sought aid in his wars. Aid was sent in 1169, and in 1171 Henry went in person. Richard of Clare (Strongbow), son-in-law of Dermod, made earl of Leinster. The southeastern part of Ireland submitted to Henry.

1172. Penitence of Henry at Becket's tomb. His absolution.

1173. Rebellion of Henry's eldest son Henry, and general league of French and English lords, Louis VII. and William the Lion of Scotland against the king. Defeat of Louis. Capture of William who was released only after acknowledging Henry as his suzerain (1175). Death of Henry the younger, 1183.

1181. Assize of arms. Restoration of militia service.

1189. Conspiracy of Henry's sons, Richard and John, with Philip of France. Humiliation and death of Henry II.

1189-1199. Richard I., Cœur-de-Lion.

His reign was passed almost entirely away from England. Crusade (p. 215). On his return Richard was captured by Leopold of Austria, delivered to the emperor, and detained thirteen months in captivity, being released at last for a heavy ransom. During his absence Eleanor, his mother, was regent. Persecution of the Jews. The intrigues of Philip of France and the king's brother John resulted in war in England, which was quickly suppressed after the return of Richard (1194). For the rest of his reign Richard was in France at war with Philip. Erection of the Château Gaillard on the Seine. Death of Richard before the castle of C'alus-Chabrol (1199).

During his absence England was governed by Hubert Walter, and after his resignation in consequence of a refusal of money by the great council, by Geoffrey Fitz Peter.

1199–1216. John Lackland.

John was recognized in England without opposition and secured Normandy, but Anjou, Maine and Touraine acknowledged the claim of Arthur son of Geoffrey.

1203. Death of Arthur while in John's power. Philip at once secured the sentence of John and the forfeiture of his fiefs. Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine and a part of Aquitaine were at once lost to John. Henceforward John was restricted to his English kingdom. The death of Hubert Walter, archbishop of Canterbury (1205) was followed by a disputed election. A reference to Rome resulted in the election of Stephen Langton by command of Innocent III. (1207). John refused to receive him and the kingdom was visited with an interdict (1208). Moved by fear of deposition, John finally yielded, received Langton, and accepted his kingdom as a fief of the papacy (1213).

John's exactions and misgovernment had embroiled him with the barons since 1199. Refusal of the barons to follow John to France (1213).

Defeat of John at Bouvines in Flanders (p. 227). On John's 1214. return negotiations were opened with the barons, but failed, and the confederated lords occupied London.

1215. Signature of Magna Charta by John at Runny-June 15. mede.

The provisions of this charter applied to the commons as well as to the nobles and clergy, and directed that its benefits should reach the lower tenants. Principal provisions: 1. Ratification of Henry's charter. 2. Security for personal freedom; no freeman should "be taken, imprisoned or damaged in person or estate, but by the judgment of his peers" or "by the law of the land" (Art. 39).2 3. Regulation of feudal dues and obligations. 4. Regulation of national taxation; limitation of the aid (auxilium) which could be collected without the consent of the great council to the three ancient and well known cases (ransom of the lord; knighting of his eldest son; marriage of his eldest daughter). 5. Specification of members of the great council, and of the cases for which, and manner in which it should be convened.

The charter declared null and void by the Pope. Suspension of Langton. War soon broke out; the French party among the barons, declaring the crown forfeited, bestowed it upon Louis, son of Philip

Stubbs, Early Plantagenets, 149.
 Nullus liber homo capiatur vel imprisonetur aut dissaisiatur aut utlaghetur aut exuletur aut aliquo modo destruatur, nec super eum ibimus, nec super eum mittemus, nisi per legale judicium parium suorum vel per legem terre.

of France, who in 1216 came to England. Death of John (October 19, 1216).

1216-1272. Henry III., of Winchester, son of John.

The death of John was fatal to the hopes of Louis. The English party which secured the coronation of the nine-year old Henry, though small at first soon outnumbered the French. The defeat of the French fleet of Thanet determined Louis to give up the contest and return to France. Regency of William Marshall (1216-1219). The Magna Charta was twice reissued in a modified form. After the death of William Marshall, England was governed by Peter des Roches, Pandulf, the papal legate, Hubert de Burgh, the justiciary, and archbishop Langton, who had returned and soon superseded Pandulf as legate (1221). Second coronation (1220). Third reissue of the charter (1223). Henry's personal government began in 1227, and soon involved the country in difficulties. Heavy taxation necessitated by the demands of the Pope and by the foreign policy of the king. Fall of Hubert de Burgh (1232); of Peter des Roches (1234). Marriage of Henry to Eleanor of Provence (1236).

Struggle over the money grants in the great council, which henceforward was called Parliament. Papal exactions of enormous sums

of money.

Of the French possessions of the Angevines Henry had retained

only Aquitaine and Gascony.

1253. Return of Simon of Montfort, earl of Leicester, son of Simon of Montfort, who had led the crusade against the Albigenses, to England from the government of Gascony. Simon soon took a prominent part in the parliamentary struggle which now assumed formidable proportions.

1258. Parliament of Oxford. The barons presented a list of grievances, the Provisions of Oxford, the reforms demanded in which were to be carried out under a commission of twenty-four barons. Permanent council of fifteen barons to meet three times a

year.

1263. Outbreak of war between the king and the barons. Arbitration of Louis IX. of France (1264). Provisions of Oxford annulled. This decision resulted in a renewal of the war. The king and his son Edward were defeated in the

1264. Battle of Lewes.

May 14. Treaty (Mise of Lewes) between the parties. Native counselors presented and a new council arranged by a parliament in which four knights from each shire were added to the clergy and nobility. Council of Nine.

1265. Parliament of Simon of Montfort, the first Parliament Jan. 20. to which representatives of the boroughs were called (yet this did not become a legal custom until in the next reign).

Edward released. Arms were again taken up. In the

1265. Battle of Evesham,

Aug. 4. Earl Simon was defeated and fell on the field. Death of Henry (Nov. 16, 1272).

In this reign the begging friars came to England. Revival of

scholasticism. Fame of Oxford. Roger Bacon, author of Opus Magnum, "the encyclopædia of the thirteenth century." Mathew Paris. Revival of Welsh literature. Mabinogion. Geoffrey of Monmouth. Romances of Arthur.

§ 5. THE NORTH.

Denmark.

1134-1397.

The extinction of the direct line of *Estridsen* (p. 208) was followed by a period of confusion and wars over the succession (*Erik Emun*, 1134–1137, *Erik Lamb*, 1137–1147) until,

1157-1182. Waldemar I., the Great,

was elected to the throne. Subjugation of the Wends, who had long harassed Denmark. Capture of Ancona on the island of Rügen. Suppression of a revolt in Skaania, caused by the severity of bishop Absalon. Waldemar's son

1182-1202. Knut VI.

was even more successful than his father, and refused to acknowledge the suzerainty of the emperor, Frederic Barbarossa, as Waldemar had done. Defeat of a naval expedition of the Wends, who received aid from the emperor, by bishop Absalon (1184); Hither Pommerania submitted, as did a part of Mecklenburg. Knut, "King of the Slavs." Expedition to Esthonia. War with the count of Holstein and other German princes. Conquest of Lübeck and Hamburg. Capture of Adolf of Holstein. Quarrel with Philip Augustus of France over his treatment of Ingebord (p. 226). Knut was succeeded by his brother,

1202-1241. Waldemar II., the Conqueror,

the first portion of whose reign forms one of the most brilliant epochs of Danish history. Adolf of Holstein released on condition of ceding all Holstein to Waldemar, who granted it as a fief to his nephew, Albert of Orlamund. Unsuccessful interference in Norway and Sweden. Conquest of Oesel and of a large part of Prussia. In return for his recognition of Frederic II. over his rivals as emperor, Waldemar obtained a cession of all conquests in Germany, north of the Elbe and the Elde (Holstein, Lauenburg, part of Mecklenburg). Expedition to Esthonia. The Danneborg, or national standard (1219). Waldemar's power fell more rapidly than it was acquired. In 1223 the king and his son were treacherously captured by Henry, count of Schwerin, and imprisoned in the castle of Danneborg, in Hanover, for three years. Waldemar obtained his release by the payment of a heavy ransom, and the renunciation of all his conquests south of the Elbe, and in the Slavic countries. Holstein ceded to Adolf the Young (1225). This renunciation was annulled by the Pope, and Waldemar tried to regain Holstein, but was defeated in the battle of Bornhæved (1227). The rest of his reign was passed for the most part in peace. He died in 1241. Of all his con-

quests only Rügen, some places in Mecklenburg, Prussia, Esthonia, remained to Denmark. Waldemar's code of laws. was twice married: 1. Margrete of Bohemia, a well-beloved princess (Dagmar). 2. Berengaria of Portugal, by whom he had three sons who mounted the throne in succession. Waldemar committed the political blunder of dividing the kingdom among his sons so that the nominal king possessed only a small part of the monarchy; Schleswig was conferred on Abel. This led to disputes, so that the following period was one of civil strife, wars of succession, murder, and exile of kings. Erik (1241-1250). Abel (1250-1252). In this reign the towns began to send representatives to the council (Danehof). Christopher (1252-1259). War about Schleswig, the king claiming that it had been granted to Abel as a personal fief, while the descendants of Abel declared that it was an hereditary fief. Conflict with the archbishop Jacob Erlandsen. Erik Glipping (1259-1286). Occupation of Schleswig. Erik Menved (1286-1319). Regency of the queen mother. Miserable condition of Denmark. The larger part of the kingdom granted out to Danish and German nobles. Christopher II. (1320-1334). The nobles and clergy extorted from the king certain capitulations, which materially weakened the power of the crown for 340 years. Confirmation of privileges of the clergy. No ecclesiastic could be tried in a secular court, neither could the tenants of ecclesiastical foundations. No bishop could be imprisoned without the consent of the Pope. The property and persons of the clergy were free from all taxation. The nobles could not be compelled to follow the king beyond the limits of the kingdom; if they were captured in war the crown was obliged to ransom them within a year, or lose the right of holding them to military service. The king could declare war only with the consent of the nobles and clergy. No person could be imprisoned without having been tried and condemned in a local court and in the king's court, whence an appeal lay to the national Diet. Laws could be made, repealed, and amended, only upon the motion of the nobles in the annual Diet, and with the consent of the whole nation. Peasants must not be unjustly treated by the king's agents, nor compelled to carry the king's baggage beyond their own township. Commerce should be free and not burdened with extraordinary dues. War with Geert, count of Holstein, who invaded the kingdom, and with the aid of discontented nobles drove Christopher from the kingdom. Election of Waldemar, duke of Schleswig; soon after, Christopher, by great concessions, acquired the crown again. Eight years of anarchy (1332-1340). Skaania, Halland, Bleking attached themselves to Sweden. After the death of Geert, the youngest son of Christopher,

1340-1375. Waldemar III., Attadag,

was made king, and devoted himself to acquiring, by purchase or by force, the alienated crown lands, in which he met with success. In 1359 Waldemar regained Skaania, Halland, and Bleking from the Swedish king, Magnus Smek, and affianced his daughter Margaret to Hakon, son of the Swedish king. Denmark restored to her boundaries as they had been under Waldemar I.

This success was followed by a general war with Sweden, Mecklenburg, the Hanseatic League, etc., which in spite of the sack of Copenhagen ended disadvantageously for the Hanse towns, 1363. In 1368, however, the Hansa, in alliance with Holstein, Mecklenburg, and Sweden, began war again, and in 1370 obtained from the Danish estates a treaty which secured for them the most extensive commercial privileges. In 1372 Waldemar accepted this peace of Stralsund. In 1375 Waldemar died. Passing over the claim of Albert, duke of Mecklenburg, the son of Waldemar's eldest daughter, the estates elected the son of his youngest daughter Olaf, (1376–1387), then six years of age. In 1380 Olaf succeeded his father Hakon as king of Norway, and both lands were well governed by his mother Margaret, the regent, who, after Olaf's death, 1387, was elected queen in both countries. In 1388, Sweden revolted against the king, Albert, and Margaret accepted an offer of the crown. In the battle of Falkoping (1389), Albert was defeated and captured. In 1397, the three kingdoms were united by the Union of Calmar.

Sweden.

1066-1397.

After the death of Stenkil (p. 208), the country was distracted by wars between the Svea and the Gauta, which lasted, with slight interruptions, for two hundred years; whereby the people suffered greatly, the free peasants disappeared, and a nobility of warriors arose which was exempt from taxation and possessed its own juris-These nobles acquired supremacy in the Diet, and reduced the power of the king to a shadow. Under Erik IX., the Saint (1150-1162), Christianity was introduced throughout the kingdom. Establishment of the archbishopric of Upsala (1163). The family of the Bonder, which began with Erik the Saint, became extinct with Erik Eriksson Læspe (1223-1250). Under this family the power of the clergy had so increased that in 1248 they were forbidden to take the oath of allegiance to the king. At the same time celibacy was introduced. The Bonder dynasty was succeeded by that of the Folkunger, which came to the throne with Waldemar (1250-1275), son of Birger Jarl, who continued until his death (1266) the actual ruler of Sweden, as he had been under Erik Læspe. Foundation of Stockholm (1255). Birger assigned his other sons large duchies in Sweden, thereby planting the seeds of future discord. In 1275, Waldemar was imprisoned by his brother Magnus, duke of Södermanland, and remained a captive until his death (1302). Magnus (1279-1290) proved a good ruler and left a prosperous kingdom to his son Birger (1290-1319). The regent Torkel governed wisely until his fall in 1306, when war broke out between Birger and his brothers Erik and Waldemar. In 1317 Birger made his brothers prisoners and starved them to death. This caused a popular revolt which expelled Birger and placed on the throne the son of Erik, Magnus Smek (1320-1363). During the regency Norway fell to Magnus, through his maternal grandfather Hakon, and Skaania,

Halland, and Bleking, which belonged to Denmark, but had been pawned to Holstein, submitted to Magnus, who paid the mortgage. Magnus, after he became of age (1333) made a poor ruler. In 1360, he surrendered Skaania, Holland, Bleking to Waldemar Attadag of Denmark, and betrothed his son Hakon to Waldemar's daughter Margaret. In 1365 Albert of Mecklenburg was proclaimed king, and in the battle of Enkæping (1365) captured Magnus who was released in 1371 upon making renunciation of the crown of Sweden. Albert (1365–1388) was king in name only, the power being in the hands of the nobles. In 1388 the nobles deposed the king and offered the crown to Margaret of Norway and Denmark, by whom it was accepted. At the battle of Falkæping Albert was made prisoner and, after an imprisonment of six years, renounced the crown. In 1397 Sweden joined Norway and Denmark in the Union of Calmar.

Norway.

1103-1397.

After the death of Magnus Barfod in Ireland (p. 209), his three sons Ejsten, Sigurd, and Olaf, reigned in conjunction until the death of Ejsten and Olaf left Sigurd sole ruler. Sigurd made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem. He was followed by his son Magnus the Blind, who in 1134 was obliged to cede half the kingdom to Harald Gille, who came from Ireland and claimed to be a son of Magnus Barfod. There followed a wretched period of civil war; strife between the Birkebenerne, or national party, and the Baglerne, or clerical party, in which the former finally got the upper hand. Magnus V. (1161–1184), Sverre (1177–1202), Hakon IV. (1202–1204), Guttorm the child (1204), Inge Baardsen (1204–1217).

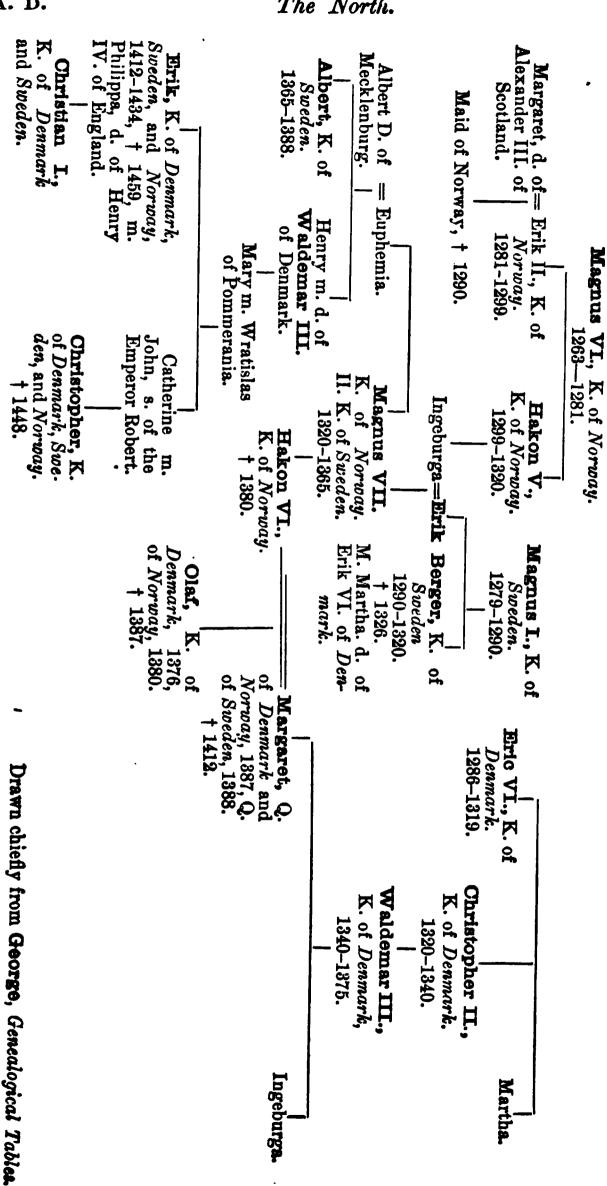
1217 (1223)-1262. Hakon V.

son of Hakon IV., grandson of Sverre. He crushed his rivals, weakened the power of the clergy, restored quiet to the country, and raised Norway once more to an influential position among European nations. Conquest of Iceland (1260) and submission of Greenland. Hakon died in 1262, after suffering a defeat at the hands of the Scots in an expedition which he had undertaken against Scotland. He was followed by his son Magnus Lagabæter (1262-1280) who ceded the Isle of Man and the Hebrides to Scotland. Collection and publication of a new code of laws (1264-1279). Erik Priest-hater (1280-1299). War with Denmark over the dowry of his mother, Ingebord. with the Hanse towns, wherein the king was worsted and obliged to grant the towns full privileges in Norway, and to join the league. Death of Margaret ("The Maid of Norway"), daughter of Erik, and granddaughter on her mother's side of Alexander III. of Scotland, while on her way to claim that crown after the latter's death. Hakon VII. (1299-1319). War with Sweden and Denmark. Dying without male issue, he left the crown to his daughter's son, Magnus,

f Sweden, who ascended the throne in 1320. In 1350 Magnus d the crown of Norway on his son Hakon VIII. (1350-1380), 362 became co-regent for Sweden. In 1363 Hakon married

Sovereigns of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

The Scottish succession and the Union of Calmar.



Margaret the heiress of Denmark. Hakon was succeeded by his minor son Olaf (1380-1387), whose mother Margaret administered the kingdom of Norway as she had done that of Denmark, which Olaf had inherited in 1376. After Olaf's death in 1387 Margaret (1387-1412) was recognized as queen of both Norway and Denmark. The union of the two monarchies was completed by the Union of Calmar and endured until 1814. At the Union of Calmar (1397) Sweden was united with the two kingdoms.

§ 6. SPANISH PENINSULA.

Arabic Spain was conquered from the *Morabethes* or *Almoravides* (p. 209) by the *Almohades* about the middle of the twelfth century. Since the defeat at *Tolosa* (1212) steady decline of the power of the Arabians, who since the reign of *Alfonso X*. of Castile were confined to the kingdom of Granada.

1095. County of Portugal, between the Duero and Minho, granted as a Castilian fief to the Burgundian count Henry, whose son liberated himself from the overlordship of Castile, and called him-

self King of Portugal (1140).

Aragon and Catalonia (county of Barcelona) united (1137). Leon and Castile separated again (1157); finally definitely united (1230).

About 1150. Origin of the three orders of knighthood which took their names from the cities guarded by them: 1. San Jago di Compostella (Gallicia), 2. Alcántara (on the Tajo), 3. Calatrava (on the Guadiana.

§ 7. THE EAST.

Eastern Empire.

1057-1185. Eastern emperors of the houses of the Ducas and the Comnenes.

1185-1204. Dynasty of Angelus.

1204-1261. Latin empire (p. 216).

The Mongols.

1206. The Mongols elected on the Amur, Temuchin, their chief. He took the honorary title Jenghiz Khan, under which, rather than under his true name, he is known in history. The Mongols conquered a part of China, destroyed the empire of the Chowaresmians, which reached from India to the Caspian Sea, and subjugated southern Prussia.

Temuchin's grandson Batu made plundering expeditions through

Russia, defeated the Poles and fought the

1241. Battle of Wahlstatt, against the Germans under

Henry the Pious, duke of Liegnitz. The Mongols, although victorious, retired to the East, and ravaged Hungary. A Christian army under Wenzel, king of Bohemia, cut them off from Austria.

The greater part of the Mongols went back to Asia, but Russia was under their sway till 1480.

1258. The Mongols conquered Bagdad and destroyed the Caliphate. Their immense empire separated into Khanates, (China, Khanate of Kaptchak on the Volga, Jagatai in Turkestan, Iran, etc.)

India.

1206-1500.

The Afghan empire broke up after the death of Muhammad Ghori (p. 211), and the vicegerency of the Punjab and Hindustan became an independent sultanate under Kútab-ud-dín, sultan of Delhi (1206-1210), who was originally a slave, and founded the slave dynasty (1206-1288). He extended the Mohammedan rule as far as the Brahma-putra. Under his successors the sultanate suffered from Mongol invasions. Allah-ud-dín, viceroy of Oude, who had made daring expeditions into the Deccan, murdered the sultan Jelál-ud-dín, his uncle, and made himself sultan. Conquest of Guzerat. Capture of Chitor in Rajputana (1300). Conquest of portions of the Deccan. After the death of Allah-ud-din (1316) revolts occurred which were suppressed by the Turkish governor of the Punjab, Tughlak, who mounted the throne of Delhi, and founded a new line of sultans, who transferred their residence to Tughlakabad. Tuglath was succeeded by his son Muhammad Tughlak (1325-1351), who was obliged to purchase the retreat of the Mongols from the Punjab. A terrible famine induced him to remove the population of Delhi to Deoghur, and the misery of those who survived the journey of 700 miles induced him to send them back again. Large issue of copper coinage, followed by financial panic. Rebellions broke out everywhere, and the Mohammedan empire separated into numerous small states. Firuz-Shah *(*1350–1388).

1398. Invasion of Hindustan by Timur Shah. Allah-ud-din had extended his power over a large part of the south, but the Hindu revolt of 1316 had shattered it. The southern part of the peninsula was comprised in the Hindu empire of Vijayanagar (Narsinga), about 1300. In 1350, on the death of Muhammad Tughlak, the Mohammedan army in the Deccan had set up a sultan of its own, whose capital was at Kulbarga. These Bahmani sultans were soon involved in a series of horrible wars with the empire of Vijayanagar. The Bahmani empire endured until 1500, when it was broken up into five kingdoms.

China.

1101-1398.

The Khitan Tatars having established themselves firmly in Leaoutsung, Hwy-tsung (1101-1126) conceived the idea of inviting the Neu-che Tatars to take the field against them; they did so and expelled the Khitan, but occupied the province themselves, and thence spread over Chili-li, Shen-se, Shun-se, and Ho-nan. Under Kaou-

tsung (1127-1163) the Neu-che Tatars, or as they now called them-

selves, the Kins, reached to the Yang-tse-Keang.

The new empire of the Kins invited attack from the Mongol Tatars, who experienced at this period a wonderful development of power. In 1213 Jenghiz Khan invaded the Kin province of Leaou-tsung; ninety cities were razed to the ground. After the death of Jenghiz (1227) his son Ogdai (1227-1241) continued the work of conquest.

1232. Fall of the Kin dynasty, brought about by an alliance of the Mongols with the independent kingdom of Sung, in the south.

Mangu (1248–1259), son of the warrior Too-le, was succeeded by his brother.

1259-1294. Kublai Khan,

Mongol emperor. The complete fall of Sung in 1280 left Kublai lord over all China, as well as ruler of almost all the rest of Asia, excepting Hindustan and Arabia. China was never more illustrious or powerful. Visit of Marco Polo, the Venetian, to the court

of Kublai. Unsuccessful attack upon Japan (1281, p. 243).

The immediate successors of Kublai were men of little note: Yuen-ching (1294–1307), Woo-tung (1307–1311). Jin-tsung (1311–1320) endeavored to blend the two races, and admitted many Chinese to official positions. After his death matters went from bad to worse, until Shun-te (1333–1368) was driven from the empire by Choo-yuen-chang, the son of a Chinese laborer, who, in 1368, proclaimed himself emperor under the name of

1368-1398. Hung-woo,

the founder of the Ming dynasty. Subjugation of Tatary.

Japan.

1156-1392.

famous in Japanese annals. In the first battle (1156) the Taira (Heishe) were victorious, under Kiyomori, and obtained control of the royal palace. Exiled from Kioto, the Minamoto (Genji), under the enterprising brothers, Yoritomo and Yoshitsuné, founded a power in the plain of the Koanto, with Kamakura as their capital. The death of Kiyomori (1181) was the signal for the downfall of the house of Hei. Kioto was captured by the Minamoto. The final struggle occurred in the

1185. Naval battle of Dan no ura,

near Shimonoséki. The Taira were utterly defeated, many perished in the fight, and the family was exterminated throughout the islands, save a few who, escaping to Kiushiv, transmitted their

name to the present day.

Secure in victory, Yoritomo left the Mikado and the kugé in Kioto undisturbed, while he strengthened his power at Kamakura. Five men of his family were appointed governors of provinces, an office previously filled only by civilians. A special tax was levied throughout the empire for the support of standing garrisons in all the prov-

inces, and these troops were under military rulers of his own race, who shared the government of the province with the civil governor, and were subordinate to *Yoritomo* himself. In 1192 *Yoritomo* was appointed *Sei-i Tai Shogun*, or generalissimo. He was henceforward known as the Shogun. With the death of *Yoritomo* (1199) fell the power of the *Minamoto*.

1200-1333. Supremacy of the family of Hojo. The founder of the Hojo ascendency was Tokimasa, father-in-law of Yoritomo, who exercised absolute control over the degenerate descendants of that able Shogun. None of the Hojo ever held the office of Shogun, but, vassals of a vassal, they ruled the Shogun and the Mikado as Yoritomo had ruled the Mikado alone. The line of Yoritomo ended in 1219, when the Shogunate was transferred to the Fujiwara, who held it until 1251, when their vassal-masters handed it over to one of the sons of the reigning Mikado, in whose family it remained until 1333.

Since the conquest of China by the Mongol-Tatars, the victors had kept the subjugation of Japan steadily in view. Embassy after embassy had demanded submission and been repulsed; the last, in 1279, was beheaded.

1281. Invasion of Japan by the Mongol Tatars.

Destruction of the armada by a typhoon; defeat and massacre of the survivors upon the island of Taka.

By this repulse *Hojo Tokimuné* won great praise; he was, indeed, a man of great capacity and good sense. After him, however, the *Hojo* grew more and more outrageous in their treatment of the Mikado until a revolt broke out, headed by *Kusunoki-Masashigé* and *Nitta Yoshisada*, which ended in the

1333. Capture and destruction of Kamakura, and the extermination of the Hojo family.

For a time (1333-1336) the Mikado Go-Daigo (1319-1338) was monarch in fact as in name, but his weakness cost him his newly found authority.

Ashikaga Takauji, one of the leaders in the revolt against the Hojo, revolted against his new master, seized Kioto, and set up a rival Mikado who appointed him Sei-i Tai Shogun.

1336-1392. War of the Chrysanthemums,

Yoshino, each displaying the imperial emblem, the chrysanthemum. Peace was concluded in 1392 under the condition that the imperial throne should be occupied by mikados taken alternately from the rival houses. The northern branch died out after a few generations.

During this period (since the establishment of the Shogun at Kioto) feudalism reached its full development. The country was divided among the soldiers of the Shogun, who held their estates as fiefs from the Shogun, to whom they owed service. Gradually the agricultural and other classes became attached to certain of these military lords, daimios, and received their lands from them as fiefs. The taxes which supported the Mikado and the court were absorbed by the daimios, and the kugé was left to abject poverty.

FOURTH PERIOD.

FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE CRUSADES TO THE DIS-COVERY OF AMERICA.

1270-1492.

§ 1. GERMANY.

1273-1347. Kings and Emperors of various houses.

1273-1291. Rudolf I., count of Hapsburg and Cyburg,

landgrave in Alsace, the most powerful prince in Helvetia, was elected by the three archbishops of Mainz, Cologne and Trier and the count Palatine of the Rhine, through the influence of his cousin, the

burggrave Frederic of Hohenzollern.

Strict enforcement of the public peace. War with Ottocar, king of Bohemia, who had taken possession of Austria, after the extinction of the Babenberg line (1246), had reconquered Styria from the Hungarians, and had inherited Carinthia and Carniola. Ottocar was put under the ban and his fiefs proclaimed forfeited. Rudolf took Vienna, and was on the point of crossing the Danube when Ottocar agreed to a treaty (Nov., 1276), whereby he abandoned Austria, Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, but received Bohemia and Moravia again as fiefs of the empire. Ottocar however soon renewed the war.

1278. Victory of Rudolf on the Marchfeld (near Vienna). Death of Ottocar. Peace with the guardian of his son Wenzel who received Bohemia and, later, Moravia. Development of the family power of the Hapsburgs. Austria, Styria, Carinthia, given as imperial fiefs to Rudolf's sons, Albert and Rudolf. Carinthia was given to Meinhard, count of Tyrol, Rudolf's brother-in-law.

Campaigns of Rudolf in Burgundy and Swabia, particularly against Eberhard of Würtemberg. In Swabia since the fall of the Hohenstaufens the most powerful princes were the counts of Würtemberg, and the margraves of Baden. The ducal title in Swabia descended to Rudolf's son Rudolf, and from him to his son John (Parricida), but this title designated only authority over the Hapsburg estates in Swabia. Formation of a great number of fiefs held immediately of the empire in Swabia. Through the exertions of the archbishop of Mainz, Rudolf's son Albert was not elected his successor, but the choice fell on a relative of the archbishop.

1292-1298. Adolf of Nassau, whose reign was devoted to the attempt to establish a dynastic power by the acquisition of Thuringia and Meissen (in opposition to the brothers Frederic 1 and Diezmann). Adolf was deposed at the Diet of Mainz, by the influence of his former patron, the archbishop of Mainz,

¹ The title "with the bitten cheek" appears to have been a later invention; his contemporaries called this Frederic, son of Margaret, daughter of Frederic II., by the surname "the Peaceable." See Wegele, Fried. der Friedige, 1868.

without the approval of the archbishops of Cologne and Trier and the count Palatine. He fell at Göllheim in personal conflict with

1298-1308. Albert I., of Austria, son of Rudolf I. who had been elected king by the opposing party. Alliance with Philip the Fair, king of France, against the Pope. Albert tried in vain to recover Holland as a vacant fief of the empire. Alliance of the three ecclesiastical electors and the count Palatine against the king, who was victorious (1301), and reduced the princes to obedience (siege of the castle of Bingen). Unsuccessful wars with Bohemia, and with Frederic and Diezmann of Meissen, who defeated the imperial army under the burggrave of Nuremberg at Lucka, not far from Altenburg (1307).

Albert was murdered by his nephew John (Parricida) between the Aar and Reuss, near the *Hapsburg*. His widow Elizabeth and his daughter Agnes took terrible vengeance for this murder. Through the influence of the archbishop of Trier the princes elected as king his brother

- 1308-1313. Henry VII., count of Lützelnburg or Luxemburg, a half-Frenchman.
- 1309. The Swiss Cantons received from Henry VII. doc-June 3. umentary confirmation of their immediate feudal relation to the empire.

Origin of the Swiss Confederacy.

Of the inhabitants of the cantons, those dwelling in Schwyz seem to have been, for the most part, free peasants; while in Uri and Unterwalden the majority were in a condition of servitude, as regarded either their persons or their estates. The most extensive landowners were monasteries (e. g. the Frauenmünster in Zürich), and nobles residing out of the country, like the counts of Lenzburg and those of Hapsburg. After the extinction of the former (1172), at any rate since the thirteenth century, the counts of Hapsburg exercised, under various legal titles as landgraves or advocates, full jurisdiction and presided in the assemblies. Under the imperfectly developed administration of that time, the holder of these privileges was considered the actual ruler of the country.

As early as the first half of the thirteenth century the cantons had resisted the efforts of the Hapsburgers to develop their stewardship into an actual sovereignty over them; indeed they had even attempted in part to withdraw themselves from the stewardship of the Hapsburgers. In 1331 Henry, regent for his father Frederic II. in Germany (p. 224), granted the people of Uri a charter which removed them from under the protection of the Hapsburgers and replaced them under that of the empire. In 1240 Frederic II. gave the people of Schwyz a charter which promised them an immediate tenure from the empire. After the middle of the thirteenth century, the Hapsburgers were nevertheless still in possession of their office

of steward or advocate (Vogt) for the cantons. Rudolf I. seems to have recognized the charter of Uri, but not that of Schwyz. Immediately upon his death, on Aug. 1, 1291, the cantons Uri, Schwyz, and Nidwalden (which was afterwards united with the towns of Obwalden under the name Unterwalden) concluded a perpetual league. Although intended only to insure the maintenance of existing conditions, this league is to be regarded as the beginning of the Confederacy. By making shrewd use of the confusion that followed in Germany, but not without many changes of fortune (after the battle of Göllheim (p. 245) the cantons were obliged to recognize the supremacy of the Hapsburgers), the confederates in 1309 attained the object for which their ancestors had striven.

The Swiss narrative, to which the popular poetry has added many ornaments, and which condenses the facts of the gradual acquirement of an immediate relation to the empire into a short space of time, and exaggerates their effects, can no longer be regarded as historical in view of the results of modern investigation. It is first found in chronicles which were written between two and three hundred years after the events, and is often contradicted by the documents. Neither the Oath on the Rütli (1307, Werner Stauffacher, Walther Fürst, Arnold Melchthal), nor the expulsion of the bailiffs on the 1st of January

1308, is historically authenticated.

The Swiss confederacy was not formed by the exertions of three or of thirty individuals, but was the result of many historical events which united in powerfully assisting the energetic and enduring efforts of the inhabitants of the cantons to free themselves from all foreign su-

premacy.

As regards the story of Tell, it is now established that neither the shooting of the apple from the head of his son, nor the murder of the bailiff Gessler in the hollow way at Küssnacht can be in any way regarded as an historical event. It has been proved that among the Küssnacht bailiffs of that time there was no Gessler. The legend of the shooting of the apple occurs five times outside of the cantons, agreeing almost to the wording of the answer which the archer gives the tyrant: in Norway, in Iceland, in Denmark, in Holstein, and on the middle Rhine, and, with an altered motive, a sixth time in England. Hence it is tolerably certain that we have here to do with a Moreover, the resemblance of the common Germanic tradition. Swiss version to the elder narrative of Saxo Grammaticus (twelfth century) of the shot of Toko, the Dane, who is said to have lived in the tenth century, is so striking as to render it probable that the Swiss chroniclers had that historian before them.

Whether a man of the name of Tell ever lived in Uri is a question which cannot be answered with certainty either in the affirmative or the negative.⁸ It is one, moreover, which has but little interest when

¹ A. Huber: die Waldstätte Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, 1861; and Rochholz, Tell und Gessler in Sage und Geschichte, 1877.

² The honor of having first used this fact after a true scientific fashion to dis-

² The honor of having first used this fact after a true scientific fashion to disprove the tradition belongs to the Swiss historian Kopp (*Trkunden zur Geschichte der eidgenössischen Bünde*, 1835 and 1857; Reichsgeschichte, 1845-1858).

According to the investigations of Kopp, who examined all the archives in Uri, and Rochholz (p. 257, note), the latter is almost certainly the case.

it is admitted that the main features of the legend are unhistorical. It is noteworthy that Tell, even in the legend, plays no part at all in the common insurrection, after the murder of the bailiff. It was not until later, when the Swiss had actually worked out their freedom, that his deed was invented, and surrounded by the halo of popular belief, his name made a symbol of Swiss energy and love of freedom. The Tell chapels and the memorial festivals are no proof that Tell was an historical personage, since the erection of the former and the establishment of the latter can be shown to date from a time when the tradition was already fully developed. The document concerning a public meeting of 1388, when more than a hundred people are said to have declared that they knew Tell, is evidently a later interpolation.

1310. Henry's son, *John*, was placed on the throne of Bohemia by the national assembly, in spite of the claims of the Hapsburgers, whereby the Lützelnburgers acquired a family power.

1310-1313. Henry's Roman expedition. He was crowned king of Italy in Pavia, and emperor in Rome (1312).

- 1314-1347. Ludwig of Upper Bavaria at war with
- 1314–1330. Frederic of Austria, son of Albert.
- 1315. Victory of the Swiss confederates in the pass between lake Nov. 15. Ägeri and the mountain Morgarten over Leopold of Austria, Frederic's brother. The flower of the Austrian chivalry (1500 in number) slaughtered.
- Dec. 9. Renewal of the league between Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden at Brunnen.
- upon the empire, by king Ludwig. During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the people generally bought off the ever diminishing rights of the landed monasteries. Rapid growth of the league of the confederates, which was joined by one after another of the remaining districts, who thus withdrew themselves from the control of the territorial lords. At the close of the fifteenth century Austria had been entirely driven out of the lands south of the Rhine. After 1340 no imperial bailiff is mentioned in the cantons, which in consequence of the weakness of the imperial power soon became republics, so that the proclamation of the independence of Switzerland in the Peace of Westphalia (1648) was only the legal recognition of a state of things which had long existed in fact.
- 1322. Battle at Ampfing near Mühldorf. Frederic of Austria defeated and captured (Schweppermann; the story is probably unhistoric).
- 1324. Ludwig gave the mark Brandenburg, which had reverted by the extinction of the Askanian line, to his son Ludwig, whom he afterwards married with Margaret Maultasch, the heiress of Tyrol and Carinthia.

1325. Frederic set at liberty upon renouncing his claim to the throne. He surrendered himself again as prisoner, was made co-regent by Ludwig, died 1330.

1327-1330. Ludwig's Roman expedition. Crowned emperor in Rome. (Anti-pope Nicholas V.)

The Electoral meeting at Rense (1338) declared every legally elected German king to be thereby constituted Roman emperor,

even without papal coronation.

The violent means adopted by Ludwig to increase his domestic power led, a year before his death, to the election of Charles, son of John, king of Bohemia († 1346 in the battle of $Cr\acute{e}cy$). Charles was not universally recognized until after Ludwig's death.

1347-1437. Emperors of the Luxemburg — Bohemian line.

1347-1378. Charles IV.

A prince with nothing knightly in his character, but wise in statecraft, and shrewd in calculation; a scholar (he studied at Paris and Bologna, spoke and wrote Bohemian, German, Latin, French, Italian). War with the Bavarian party. In opposition to Ludwig there appeared in Brandenburg the false Waldemar (1348–1350), who was assisted by Charles.

The emperor's first care was his hereditary kingdom, Bohemia (whence he was styled by Maximilian I., "Bohemia's father, the Holy Roman Empire's arch-step-father"). The emperor in 1348 founded a university, after the pattern of that in Paris, at Prague, the first in Germany. The Bavarian party elected in opposition

1349. Günther of Schwarzburg, king of Germany, but he died in Jan. June of the same year (poisoned?).

Plague (Black Death) in Germany, and throughout nearly all

Europe. Persecutions of the Jews. Flagellants.

1353. Berne joined the Swiss confederacy which now included *Uri*, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Lucerne, Zürich, Glarus, Zug, and Berne, the so-called eight old cantons.

1354-1355. Charles's first expedition to Rome. He was crowned emperor at Rome with a humiliating ceremony.

Silesia and Lower Lusatia (Niederlausitz) united with Bohemia.

1356. Golden Bull. Fundamental law of the empire.

The election of the emperor was definitively intrusted to the seven electors, who had practically exercised this right for a long time; three ecclesiastics: 1. Archbishop of Mainz (arch-chancellor of Germany); 2. Archbishop of Trier (arch-chancellor of Italy); 3. Archbishop of Cologne (arch-chancellor of Burgundy); four secular: 4. King of Bohemia (arch-seneschal); 5. Count Palatine of the Rhine (arch-steward); 6. Duke of Saxon-Wittenberg (arch-marshall); 7. Margrave of Brandenburg (arch-chamberlain). Establishment of the indivisibility and inalienableness of the electoral states, which were made hereditary in the male line and received certain regalia (privilegium de non appellando, etc.). The electoral vote went with the land.

1 So called from the gold case which contained the seal.

² The electoral vote had been disputed between the two Saxon lines and the two lines of Wittelsbach. It was now assigned to Sachsen-Wittenberg and the County Palatine, but refused to Sachsen-Lauenburg and Bavaria.

- 1363. Austria acquired Tyrol. The heiress of Tyrol, Margaret Maultasch, who outlived her husband, the Bavarian Ludwig, elector of Brandenburg (p. 247), and her only son, Meinhard, gave her county after the latter's death to duke Rudolf of Austria.
- 1368. Second expedition of Charles to Italy in alliance with the Pope against the Visconti.
- 1373. By the treaty of Fürstenwalde, Otto the Finne (lazy), the last Bavarian margrave of Brandenburg, transferred the mark to Charles IV., in return for an annuity.

Leagues of the Cities.

The Hanseatic League. The union of several seaports and trading cities, between the Baltic and the Elbe, formed in the thirteenth century (between 1255 and 1262?), was the beginning of this league.¹

Separate alliance between Lübeck and Hamburg.

In the fourteenth century the league attained wide extent and great power. After this time the name Hansa (i. e. trade guild) was commonly applied to the league. Since 1350 over ninety cities extending from the mouth of the Schelde to Esthonia, besides many inland cities (e. g. Magdeburg, Berlin Tuorn), belonged to the Hansa. Object of the alliance: common defense, security of sea and land routes, settlement of disputes between members by arbitration, acquirement and maintenance of trading privileges in foreign countries. Capital of the league: Lübeck. Division of the league into three, afterwards four, quarters: 1. Prussian and Livonian; principal town, Dantzig; 2. Wendic, including also the cities of Mecklenburg, Pommerania, and the Marches; chief town, Lübeck; 3. Saxon; chief town, Brunswick; 4. Westphalian; chief town, Cologne. Principal trading ground, all northern Europe. Principal trading stations: Novgorod, Stockholm, Wisby (in Gothland), Bergen, Bruges, London. Ships of war (Orlogschiffe).

1361. War with Waldemar IV., king of Denmark, under the conduct of the burghermaster of Lübeck, John Wittenborg, who captured and plundered Copenhagen, but was afterwards defeated before Helsingborg, and, in consequence, beheaded at Lübeck.

1367-1370. Second war with Waldemar IV. The king compelled to fly. Copenhagen, Helsingör, and other cities conquered. A glorious and advantageous peace for the *Hansa*, concluded at *Stralsund*, ended the war.

The League of Rhine cities, founded about the middle of the thirteenth century (league of Worms and Mainz), to insure stricter enforcement of the public peace, comprised at various times more than seventy cities, not all upon the Rhine (e. g. Bremen, Regensburg, Nuremberg); both temporal and spiritual princes joined the league.

The **Swabian** city league concluded in 1376, particularly as a defense against the counts of Würtemberg. Eberhard the Greiner (i. e. Quarreler), also called Rauschebart. (Uhland's ballads.)

¹ Unions of German merchants in foreign countries under this name had long existed, the oldest being in London.

Associations of Nobles founded by members of the middle nobility, the imperial knights, particularly in Swabia, Franconia, and on the Rhine, to maintain their independence against the cities on the one hand and against the higher nobility, the princes of the empire, who were everywhere trying to acquire territorial sovereignty on the other. The princes of the empire were either spiritual (archbishops, three of whom were electors (p. 248), bishops, abbots), or secular (dukes, countspalatine, margraves, burggraves). The following associations of nobles deserve mention: the Martinsvögel (named after the day of their union), the Schlegler, the Löwenbund.

1377. Beginning of the wars between the cities and the nobles.

Battle of Reutlingen. Brilliant victory of the Swabian league (Ulm, the capital) over Ulrich, son of Eberhard. The Swabian league recognized by the emperor.

- 1378. Death of Charles IV., after he had so divided his lands among his three sons that Wenzel received Bohemia and Silesia (Luxemburg fell to him afterwards also), Sigismund, the mark of Brandenburg, John, Lusatia. In Moravia two nephews of Charles, Prokop and Jobst, were margraves. The election to the German throne had already fallen upon
- 1378-1400. Wenzel, Charles IV.'s oldest son.
- 1381. The Swabian league united with that of the Rhine, and afterwards entered into alliance with a part of the Swiss confederacy.
- 1384. Wenzel proclaimed a new public peace, the so-called *Heidel-berger Stallung* (Stallung = preserve of game, etc.), for four years, which, however, was broken after the king had returned to Bohemia.

Leopold of Austria, who, in the division of Hapsburg estates had received the western lands, attacked the Swiss confederacy in alliance with the south German nobility. In the

- 1386. Battle of Sempach (Arnold von Winkleried?), he was defeated and lost his life. His second son, Leopold, renewed the war and was defeated in the
- 1388. Battle of Näfels, by the men of Glarus and Schwyz. The war with the cities broke out anew. Eberhard the Greiner defeated the Swabian cities at Döffingen, where his son Ulrich fell. Rupert, count Palatine, defeated the Rhine towns at Worms. These victories restored the superiority of the princes over the cities.

1389. New public peace for eight years proclaimed by Wenzel at

the council of the princes at Eger.

Wenzel, who was hated in Bohemia for his cruelty and indolence, and had been several times made a prisoner in civil quarrels, was deposed by a section of the princes of the empire (1400). He died 1419 as king of Bohemia.

¹ See O. Kleisner, die Quellen zur Sempacher Schlacht und die Winkelriedsage, 1873.

1400-1410. Rupert, Count Palatine,

who was barely able to make the royal authority respected

within his own party.

1401. Unsuccessful expedition to Italy. The German army was defeated at *Brescia* by *John Galeazzo Visconti*, whom Wenzel had appointed hereditary duke of Milan (1395).

1409. In consequence of the Hussite troubles (p. 252) in Prague and a change in the university statutes, all Germans, professors and students alike (5000 in number), left the university of Prague and went to Leipzig, where Frederic the Warlike of Meissen founded a university.

The council of Pisa, convened to restore papal unity (Pope Gregory XII., against Pope Benedict XIII.), elected Alexander V. as a third Pope, not having been able to induce the former two to abdicate.

1410-1437. Sigismund, brother of Wenzel,

in right of his wife, daughter of Ludwig the Great, king of Hungary, margrave of Brandenburg since the death of Charles IV. Sigismund was at first elected by the votes of Trier, the County Palatine, and Brandenburg, whose vote he himself cast through his plenipotentiary Frederic, burggrave of Nuremberg. The other princes elected Jobst of Moravia († 1411). By the skillful management of his plenipotentiary, and the recognition of the successor of Alexander V., John XXIII., Sigismund gained the votes of the opposition at a second election, went to Italy, fought unsuccessfully with Venice and Milan, but induced Pope John XXIII., who was hard pressed by Naples, to summon an ecumenical council in German territory.

1414-1418. Council of Constance (Kostnitz).

At once a council of the empire and, in a certain way, a European congress, visited by Italian, German, French, English, and afterwards by Spanish prelates (5 patriarchs, 33 cardinals, 200 archbishops and bishops), and by numerous princes with imposing trains, so that at times there were as many as 80,000 strangers in the city.

The council had three objects: 1. Suppression of heresy (causa fidei). 2. Healing of the schism (causa unionis). 3. Reformation of

the church (causa reformationis).1

The party of reform secured the adoption of the plan of voting by nations, Germans, French, English, Italian, having each one common vote. Pope John XXIII., who appeared in person, was first induced to public abdication, but afterwards escaped to Schaffhausen with the help of Frederic, duke of Austria, who being put under the ban was forced to submit. Upon the motion of Gerson, chancellor of the University of Paris, the council proclaimed its superiority over the Pope, but proceeded to take up the causa fidei next. Condemnation of the doctrine of the Englishman Wiclif (1327–1384) (opposition to confession, transubstantiation, and absolution), and the chief missionary and developer of this doctrine, John Hus (a Bohemian of Czechish descent, born at Hussinec, 1369; 1398, professor; 1402, rec-

¹ Cf. Hübler, die Konstanzer Reformation, 1867.

tor of the University of Prague; since 1412 under the ban), who, relying upon a safe conduct from the emperor, had appeared in Constance. Hus burnt (July, 1415, his friend Hieronymus of Prague, 1416). After the execution of Hus, the causa unionis was again taken up. John XXIII. was deposed; Gregory XII. abdicated voluntarily. Sigismund went to Spain to secure the abdication of Benedict XIII. During the long absence of the emperor, discussion of the causa reformationis. After Sigismund's return (1417) Benedict XIII. was deposed by the council.

It was now demanded by the party of reform that a thorough reform of the church in all its parts should precede the election of a new Pope; the Ultramontanes (i. e. the Italians), reinforced by the Spaniards as a fifth nation, succeeded in bringing about an immediate election, so that the reform fell through. Martin V. elected Pope, Nov. 1417 (although with the condition: de fienda reformatione post electionem), dissolved the council 1418, as an agreement could not be reached. The three concordats which were concluded with the Germans, the English, and the Romans, brought about no real abolition

of abuses.

At Constance in 1415 Sigismund invested Frederic burggrave of Nuremberg with the mark Brandenburg, the electoral vote, and the office of archchamberlain, as a reward for the important services he had done him (especially at his election), and the empire. The ceremony of investiture took place in 1417.

1423. After the extinction of the Askanian house, Sigismund invested Frederic the Warlike, of the house of Wettin, margrave of Meissen, with the electoral duchy of Saxony (Wittenberg).

1419-1436. Hussite War.

Terrible indignation of the Bohemians at the execution of His followers, the Hussites, also called Utraquists, because they demanded communion in both kinds, bread and wine (sub utraque specie), for the laity as well as for the clergy, attempted to spread their doctrine, which the council had rejected, by force. Revolt in Prague. Ziska leader of the Hussites. After the death of king Wenzel (1419), Sigismund was heir to the Bohemian throne. He was crowned in Prague, but was soon obliged to leave the country. The imperial troops were driven back as they entered Bohemia (1421). Sigismund was disgracefully defeated (1422) at Deutsch-Brod. The Hussites ravaged the neighboring countries (skillful use of gun-The counpowder and clumsy cannon; ramparts of wagons). cil of Basel (1431-1449) concluded a treaty with the moderate Hussites (Calixtinians), (compact of Prague 1433); the Taborites, whose leaders (the two Prokops) fell in battle, were defeated and annihilated at Böhmisch-Brod (1434).

1420-1460. Epoch of the greatest power of the secret tribunals of Westphalia (Vehngerichte).

¹ The mortgaging the mark for a sum of money was only a form. There was no sale, only a "remunerative present." Cf. Riedel, Gesch. des Preuss. Königshauses, II. 269.

1438-1740. Emperors of the House of Hapsburg.

1438-1439. Albert II., son-in-law of Sigismund, whom he succeded in *Bohemia* and *Hungary* as well, died after returning from an expedition against the Turks.

1440-1493. Frederic III. (IV.), cousin of Albert,

the last emperor who was crowned in Rome (1452). He was powerless both in Germany and in his own lands, and involved in war with his brothers.

Eneas Silvius Piccolomini (when Pope, Pius II.), his advisor. Civil war in Switzerland; Zürich allied with Austria (1440-1446). The troops of Zürich defeated by the confederates. Zürich besieged. At the request of Frederic, Charles VII. of France sent the Dauphin (afterwards Louis XI.), with the unbridled bands of the Armagnacs, against Basel, to raise the siege of Zürich. Heroic death of 1600 Confederates at St. Jacob (1444). Peace with France. Since their victory at Ragaz (1446) over the German troops, the Swiss confederacy was practically independent. Native kings elected in Hungary and Bohemia (1457) whom Frederic was obliged to recognize.

The reforms resolved upon in the Council of Basel (1431-1449) were abandoned by the Concordat of Vienna concluded with Pope

Eugenius IV. (1446).

About 1450 John Gutenberg 2 invented (at Mainz) the art of printing. (Johann Fust, Peter Schöffer).

Frederic, obliged to give up parts of the duchy of Austria to his brother and his cousin, besieged by them in Vienna, and released by

George Podiebrad, king of Bohemia (1462).

The marriage of Frederic's son, archduke Maximilian, with Mary, daughter and heiress of Charles the Bald, duke of Burgundy († 1477), caused several wars with France, and, after the death of Mary (1482), with the revolted Netherlands. Maximilian, however, succeeded in keeping the Burgundian inheritance for his son by Mary, the archduke Philip. Only the duchy of Burgundy (la Bourgogne, capital Dijon), fell to France.

Frederic III., involved in a war with *Matthias Corvinus*, king of Hungary, was driven out of Austria and restored by Maximilian (only after the death of Corvinus, 1490). Maximilian, after the extinction of a branch line, received *Tyrol*, which the house of Hapsburg had acquired in 1363 (p. 249), and at Frederic's death was in possession

of all the Austrian lands.

1 If Frederic of Austria, opponent and co-regent of Ludwig of Bavaria, be

counted, he was Frederic IV.

² His family name was Genssleisch; the name Gutenberg was that of his mother's patrician family. The claim brought forward in the Netherlands that Lorenz Jansson (Coster) in Haarlem was the true inventor of printing (1423) has been proved by Van der Linde to rest upon a forgery. His investigations assign Fust and especially Schöffer a much less important position than has been commonly attributed to them.

§ 2. FRANCE.

1270-1285. Philip III., le Hardi, the Rash. A quiet reign whose troubles were mostly from outside. Sicilian Vespers (p. 226). Philip married his son,

1285-1314. Philip IV., le Bel, the Fair, with Johanna, heiress of

Navarre.

Systematic introduction and development of the Civil (Roman) Law. Increased importance of parliament, from which ecclesiastics were removed in 1287; in 1302 it was fixed at Paris. (The French parliament was a court, not a legislature).

Agreement between Philip and Edward I., of England, Edward renouncing his claims upon Normandy and receiving from Philip 10,000 livres and a guarantee of non-forfeiture for the rest of his

French fiefs.

1292-1293. Conflicts between English and Norman sailors; sack of La Rochelle. Edward I. of England, summoned before the court of his suzerain, sent instead his brother, earl of Lancaster, who surrendered Guienne to Philip as security for a satisfactory arrangement. Philip, hereupon, declared Edward's fiefs forfeited, by reason of his non-appearance.

1294-1297. War between France and England, carried on in Gascony and in Flanders, Philip being successful in both fields.

1299, June 19. Peace was concluded between France and England at *Montreuil-sur-Mer*, on the basis of present possession as regarded territory. Marriage to Edward I. and Margaret, sister of *Philip IV*. (see below).

in the king's need of money, owing to the growing centralization of government, which led him to tax ecclesiastical property. Bull, "Clericis laicos," forbidding the clergy to pay taxes to the secular government without consent of the Pope (1296). Philip replied by an ordinance prohibiting the exportation of money or valuables from the kingdom without the king's permission. From these extreme positions the princes gradually retreated until a reconciliation was patched up. As a private man the Pope became arbitrator between Philip and Edward, and secured two thirds of Aquitaine to France, which was, however, again transferred to England by a marriage treaty, wherein Edward was betrothed to Philip's sister Margaret, and his son, Edward (II.) to Philip's daughter Isabelle. Flanders annexed to France.

The quarrel between the king and the Pope broke out afresh in 1301. The bull "Ausculta fili," wherein the Pope asserted his supremacy over all kings, was burned by Philip's order. Remonstrance of the estates of France with the Pope (1302).

Revolt of Flanders. The French army of feudal barons was totally

defeated by Flemish citizens in the

1302. July 1. Battle of Courtrai (Day of the Spurs).

Four thousand gilt spurs were captured by the victors. So many fiefs were vacated that Philip saw the royal power considerably strengthened.

Publication of the decretal "Unam Sanctam" (Nov. 18, 1302) claiming the supremacy of the spiritual power over the temporal; this was followed by a threat of excommunication. In France the last bull was seized, and violent measures taken against the Pope. On Sept. 7, 1303, Boniface VIII. was seized at Anagni by the king's adviser, Nogeret, and Sciarra Colonna, and treated with indignity. He was shortly released by a popular uprising, but finding Rome on his return in French hands, he fell ill and died.

Philip recognized the independence of Flanders (1305 June 5).

Benedict XI. dying, after nine months Philip secured the election of a Frenchman as Clement V. Reconciliation of the church with the king.

1309. Removal of the papal residence to Avignon (1309-1379).

1307. Arrest of all Knights Templars in France. Trial of the knights on various charges of immorality and heretical doctrines and practices. By the free use of hearsay evidence and of torture, their condemnation was secured, and fifty-four were burned. Abolition of the order (1312) by the Pope. Execution of the grand master, Jacques de Molai, confiscation of the lands of the templars. Annexation of Lyons, hitherto independent through the very number of her claimants, to France (1312). Death of Louis, Nov. 29, 1414.

1314-1316. Louis X. le Hutin, the Quarrelsome, through his mother heir of Navarre. His uncle, Charles of Valois, was the true ruler. Execution of Philip's minister, De Marigni. Serfs permitted to purchase their freedom. (Comme selon le droit de nature chacun doit naistre franc). Louis died June 5, 1316. His brother

1316-1322. Philip V. le Long, the Tall,

was appointed regent for the queen, who was with child. On the death of the queen's son, soon after birth, Philip proclaimed himself king, and to put aside the claims of *Jeanne*, daughter of *Louis X*., he decreed that on the basis of ancient Frankish law, no female could succeed to the throne of France (the Salic law).

Excesses of the Pastoureaux suppressed by force. Attacks upon

the lepers and the Jews.

Acquisition of *Douay*, *Orchies*, *Ryssel* from Flanders. Philip died Jan. 3, 1322, and was succeeded by his brother,

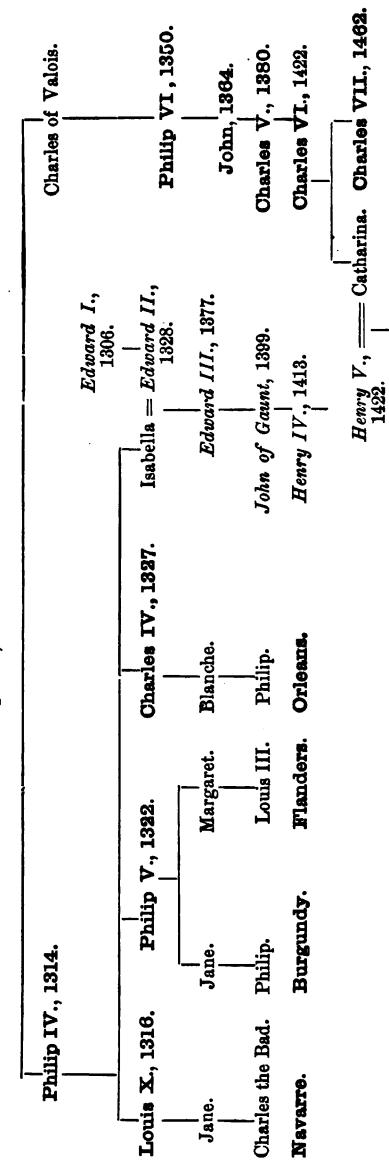
1322-1328. Charles IV., the Fair,

Died January 31, 1328, without male issue. Jeanne, daughter of Louis X., received Navarre. In France, according to the Salic law, the

¹ Lex Salisca, tit. 42, 6. De terra vero salica in mulierem nulla portio transit, sed hoc virilis sexus acquirit. This applies strictly to allodial possessions, and not to fiefs or to the crown.

The succession in 1328.

Philip III., 1285.

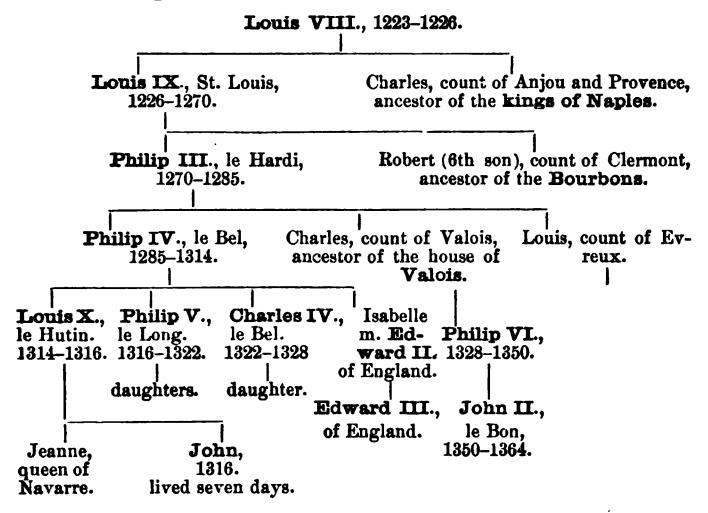


The dates, years of death. French kings, in black type. Descendants of Edward I., in italics.

Henry VI., 1471. King of England and France.

Taken from Labberton's Outlines of History, with some change of type.

1328-1498 (1589). House of Valois, a younger line of the Capets, succeeded.



· 1328–1350. Philip VI., nephew of Philip IV.

Philip was the choice of the feudal barons, who had regained somewhat of their old power since the death of Philip the Fair, but his tyranny alienated his vassals, while his oppressive exactions hampered trade and deprived him of the hearty support of the cities. Quarrel with Edward III. of England, springing out of the claim of the English sovereign to the French crown through his mother, Isabelle, daughter of Philip IV. (see the genealogy). Alliance with Scotland. Outbreak of the

Hundred years War between France and 1339-1453. England. (Froissart 1337-1410 (?), chronicler of the war.) Naval victory of the English and their allies, the Flemish (Jacob van Artevelde), at Sluys (1340).

Contested succession in Brittany; John de Montfort, one claimant, obtained the aid of Edward, and recognized him as king of France. (Heroism of Marguerite, countess of Montfort.) Landing of Edward in Normandy (1346).

Battle of Crécy, in Picardy.

August 26. Victory of the English. Use of cannon (?). Death of the blind king, John of Bohemia, the father of Charles IV.1 1347. Capture of Calais (story of the intercession of Queen Philippa).

¹ Recent investigators reject the story that the fifteen-year-old Prince of Wales (the Black Prince), took from the helmet of the fallen king John, the devise "Ich dien."

1347-1349. Black Death in France.

Acquisition of Montpellier from James of Arragon, and of the Dauphiné of Vienne from the last Dauphin, Humbert II. (who went into a monastery) by purchase. Vienne was given to Charles, son of John of Normandy, grandson of Philip. He took the title of Dauphin, and on his accession to the throne decreed that the Dauphiné should never be united with the crown. Hence Dauphin became the title of the heir of the French crown.

Origin of the practice of selling offices and titles. First imposition of the gabelle, a tax in the form of control of all salt works by the government. Death of Philip, Aug. 22, 1350; he was followed by his son,

1350-1364. John II., le Bon.

Feud with Charles the Bad, king of Navarre; arrest and imprisonment of Charles (1356).

1356. Battle of Poitier (properly Maupertuis).

- Sept. 19. Victory of the Black Prince with 10,000 men, over John with 50,000. Capture of John (a prisoner for four years). Meanwhile confusion reigned in France where the young Dauphin, as regent, was unable to suppress the terrible civil conflicts.
- Marcel, the provost of the traders (prévôt des marchands), who entered into treasonable connection with Charles the Bad, king of Navarre. Meeting of the estates; abolition of abuses. Truce with England for two years. Murder of the marshalls of Champagne and Normandy in the regent's presence, by order of Marcel. The government in the hands of Marcel and a committee of thirty-six.

1358. Peasant war, accompanied by horrible cruelties, known as the Jacquerie, under the lead of Guillaume Caillet, called Jacques Bonhomme, which afterwards became the nickname for the lower class in general, in France. Murder of Marcel in Paris.

1360. Peace of Bretigny (near Chartres).

Edward received *Poitou*, *Guienne*, and *Gasconge* in full sovereignty, but renounced his claim to the French crown, and renounced also all other fiefs in France. Release of John, for a ransom.

- 1363. Burgundy occupied by John on the death of the queen and her son by her former marriage, Philip, duke of Burgundy, passing over the claim of Charles of Navarre. The duchy was given to the king's son, Philip the Bold, founder of the Burgundian branch line of Valois. By his marriage with the heiress of Flanders, the new duke laid the foundation of the power of the house of Burgundy in the Netherlands. Return of John to captivity. He died April 8, 1364, and was followed by his son,
- 1364-1380. Charles V., le Sage, the Wise.

In the war between Pedro, the Cruel, of Castile, and his brother, Henry of Trastavere, Charles favored the latter, while the former

was allied with the Black Prince. Expelled by Bertrand du Guesclin, Pedro was restored by the Black Prince (Battle of Najara, 1367). In 1369 Pedro was killed in personal combat with his brother. Reform of the coinage in France.

1369. Charles declared war on Edward. Du Guesclin (1313-1380), constable of France (1370). Most of the English possessions in France were again united with the crown of France. Death of the Black Prince (1376). Death of Charles, Sept. 16, 1380. He was followed by his son,

1380-1422. Charles VI., then eleven years old.

Quarrels of his uncles, the dukes of Anjou, of Burgundy, of

Bourbon, and of Berry.

Threatened invasion of England comes to naught. Revolt in Ghent under Philip van Artevelde. Crushed by Charles (De Clisson, constable) at the battle of Roosebec (1382); slaughter of the Flemings. Death of van Artevelde.

1392. Charles being seized with madness, the regency was assumed by the dukes of Burgundy and Berry, setting aside the duke of Orléans, the brother of the king. Civil strife between the parties of Burgundy and Orléans (Armagnacs 1). The duke of Orleans murdered by order of John, duke of Bur-

gundy. Cabochians (from one Caboche, a butcher) in Paris,

overthrown by the Orleanists under the Dauphin.

1415. Henry V. of England, landing at Harfleur, besieged that city in vain, but in the Battle of Azincourt (Agincourt), he Oct. 15. totally defeated a vastly superior French army. Capture of the dukes of Orléans and Bourbon. Death of the Dauphin, of the king's second son, John, and of the duke of Berry. The queen, Isabeau, of Bavaria, took refuge with the duke of Burgundy. of the Armagnacs at Paris, 1418. Rouen captured by the English.

John the Fearless, duke of Burgundy, murdered at the bridge of Montereau by the followers of the Dauphin (Tanneguy, Duchâtel). John's son, Philip, hereupon concluded, with the consent of the queen, the Treaty of Troyes with the English (1420). Henry V. married Catharine, daughter of Charles VI., and became regent and heir of

Under John the Fearless (1371-1419) and his son, Philip the Good (1396-1467), the house of Burgundy reached the summit of its power. Philip made himself master of the inheritance of Jacqueline, daughter of William, count of Holland, although the emperor, Sigismund, had declared her lands to be vacant fiefs of the empire. Henry V. of England (at Vincennes, Aug. 31, 1422), and of Charles VI. of France (Oct. 21, 1422). The latter was succeeded by his

Charles VII., **1422–1461.**

who, for the present, was recognized south of the Loire only; in the north Henry VI., infant king of England, was acknowledged

¹ From Bernard, count of Armagnac, father-in-law of the duke of Orleans, who became head of the Orleanists about 1410.

lord. Duke of Bedford, regent in France, allied with the duke of Burgundy. Siege of Orléans (1428).

the left bank of the Meuse, convinced that she was chosen by Heaven to be the deliverer of France, succeeded in obtaining from the king permission to relieve Orléans, the accomplishment of which feat (April 29-May 8) earned for her the name Maid of Orléans (La Pucelle). The English driven back. Charles VII. crowned at Rheims. Intrigues against Jeanne at the French court. Captured by the Burgundians at Compiègne (1430), she was delivered to the English, and, after a mock trial, condemned for sorcery, and burnt in Rouen (1431).

1435. The duke of Burgundy recognized Charles VII., on condition of receiving Auxerre, Macon, Peronne, Montdidier, and the towns on the Somme, and being released from feudal homage. Death of the duke of Bedford.

1436-1449. Period of inaction, utilized by Charles VII., for the introduction of reforms: establishment of a permanent tax to be levied by the king without the coöperation of the estates; abolition of the "free companies," and institution of regular companies, the beginning of standing armies (ordinance of Orleans, 1439).

- 1449-1461. Renewal of the war. After some fluctuations of fortune (Talbot in Guienne; his death, 1453) the English lost all their possessions in France except Calais.
- 1453. Fall of Constantinople. End of the Eastern Empire. Introduction of Grecian scholars and Grecian writers into Europe (p. 278). Death of Charles VII., July 22, 1461. He was succeeded by his son,

1461–1483. Louis XI.,

who by his shrewdness and perfidy annihilated the power of

the great barons and laid the foundation of absolute monarchy.

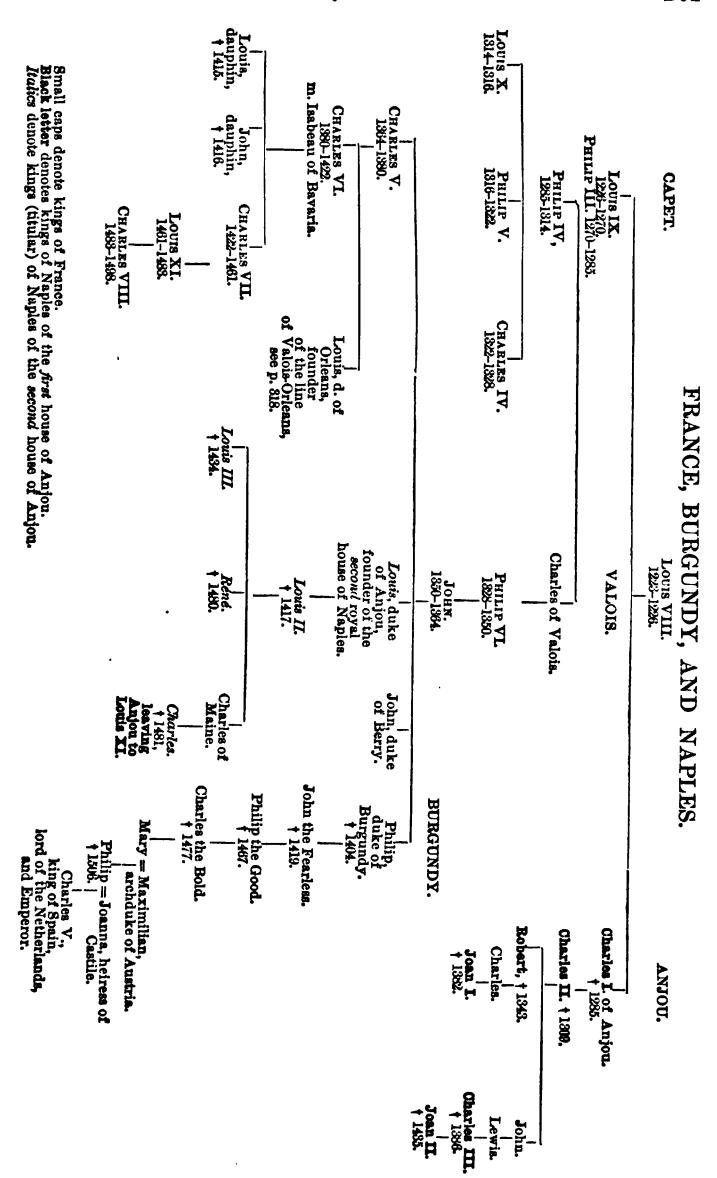
Revocation of the Pragmatic Sanction of Charles VII. (issued in 1438 by the council of Bourges: declaration of the rights of the Gallican church; limitation of the power of the papacy in France; appeals to Rome forbidden).

1462. Acquisition of Roussillon and Cerdagne by mortgage. Redemption of Amiens, Abbeville and St. Quentin from Bur-

gundy.

of the dukes of Brittany, Bourbon, Lorraine, Alençon, Berry, and the count of Charolois. Battle of Montl'héry. Louis broke up the league by the concessions of the treaty of Conflans (restoration of the towns on the Somme, Normandy granted to the duke of Berry), the execution of which he evaded. Death of Philip of Burgundy; accession of his son Charles the Bold (le Téméraire). Conflict between the duke and the king. Meeting at Peronne (Oct. 1468). Storm of Liége.

1475. Invasion of France by Edward IV. of England in alliance with Burgundy. Meeting at Pequigny (near Amiens) between



Louis and Edward. Betrothal of the Dauphin Charles to Edward's eldest daughter. Peace between France and Burgundy.

War of Charles the Bold with the Swiss cantons. Defeat of the

duke in the

1476. Battle of Granson, in the

March 1.

June 22. Battle of Murten, (morat) and in the

1477. Battle of Nancy, where Charles was slain.

Jan. 5. The duchy of Burgundy united with the crown of France, as was likewise Anjou, Provence, and Maine through the extinction of the house of Anjou (1480). Annexation of Alençon, Perche, Guienne, during this reign. The king's servants: Olivier le Dain, Tristan l'Hermite. Death of Louis XI., Aug. 30, 1483. He was succeeded by his son,

1483–1498. Charles VIII.

Death of the duke of *Brittany* (1488). The coalition of the emperor, Spain, and England to preserve the independence of the duchy bore no fruit. In 1491 Charles married *Anne*, daughter of the duke of Brittany. Peace of Senlis with the emperor (1493); peace of Etaples with England. Cession of *Roussillon* and *Cerdagne* to Spain.

1495. Rapid conquest of the kingdom of Naples which Charles claimed by inheritance through his father from Charles, count of Maine and Provence (see the genealogy), which, however, he was soon forced to abandon in consequence of a league between the *Pope*, the *emperor*, the *duke of Milan*, *Venice*, and *Spain*.

§ 3. ITALY.

Milan: since the time of the emperor Henry VII. (1308-1313) under the Visconti as imperial viceroys; since 1395 as dukes. After the extinction of the line of the Visconti (1447) Milan became for a short time a republic. The condittiere Francesco Sforza, husband of a daughter of the last Visconti, who served in the pay of Milan, soon seized the power and became duke of Milan (1450).

Venice: since 697 one state under a doge (dux); from about 1000 A. D., ruler of the Adriatic, increased in power and influence throughout the period of the crusades. Participation in the so-called fourth crusade (p. 216), under the doge Henry Dandolo, then ninetyfour years of age. After the crusades and the war with Genoa, which lasted 125 years, Venice was mistress of the Mediterranean and the trade with the East, during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Acquisition of Corfu 1387, of Cyprus by gift of Catharine Cornaro, 1498. The republic at the height of its power in the first half of the fifteenth century. Constitution strictly oligarchical. 1172. Establishment of the *Great Council*, with 450-500 members, followed by that of the Small Council (Signoria), which limited the power of the doges still more. 1298. Closing of the Great Council. Golden book of the Conspiracies — among others that of the doge nobility (1315). Marino Faliero (executed in 1355) — led to the creation of the powerful Council of Ten. Since 1454 the three terrible state inquisitors.

Genoa, since the reëstablishment of the Greek empire in the East a powerful state, especially since the final victory over *Pisa* in Italy (Sardinia and Corsica); weakened by the war with *Venice* and by civil disturbances in the second half of the fifteenth century; sub-

jected now to Milan, now to France.

In Florence, after long civil contests, democracy and tyranny having ruled the city in turn since 1282, the family of Medici acquired princely rank, about 1400, and brought the city to its highest point of power. Giovanni di Medici, a rich banker, founder of the power of his family. His son, Cosimo (Cosmus), the father of his country (died 1464). Under his grandson, Lorenzo (died 1492), development of the arts in Florence. Renovation of the sciences, advanced by Grecian scholars, who had fled from the Eastern Empire before the Turks. Dante Alighieri, author of the "Divine Comedy," born 1265, at Florence, where he played an important part in the political complications, banished 1302, died at Ravenna, September 14, 1321. Francesco Petrarca, the "father of the revival of learning" (1304–1374). Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375), author of the "Decamerone."

The Papal States, founded by the presents of Pipin and Charles the Great (p. 184); in the twelfth century increased by the bequest of the countess *Matilda* of Tuscany (p. 200) and other acquisitions; since *Innocent III*. completely independent of the empire. Pope *Boniface VIII*. (1294–1303) at variance with Philip IV. of France (p. 254). His successor, Clement V. (a Frenchman), transferred the papal residence to **Avignon**. Residence of the Popes at

1309-1376. Avignon. ("Babylonish captivity.")

At Rome the fantastic tribune Cola di Rienzi (1347, papal senator 1354). Comtat Venaissin in the thirteenth century, Avignon

in the fourteenth century, became the property of the papacy.

From 1378 on there was one Pope at Rome, elected by the Italian cardinals, and one at Avignon, elected by the French cardinals, to which number the Council of Pisa (1409) added a third, until the Council of Constance restored the unity of the church (p. 251). (Great Schism, 1378–1417).

At Naples, the house of Anjou: the elder line until 1282 (death of Queen Joan I.); the younger (Durazzo) until 1435 (death of Joan II.).

(See the genealogy, p. 261.)

Sicily, 1282–1295 united with Aragon; 1295–1409 under a branch of the house of Aragon; after 1409 again united with Aragon, whose king, Alphonso V. (1416–1458), conquered Naples in 1435. After his death (1458), Naples, but not Sicily, descended to his natural son (Ferdinand I.) and his successors (—1501).

§ 4. ENGLAND.

1272-1307. Edward I., Longshanks.

The great events of this reign were the annexation of Wales to England and the introduction of financial, legal, and legislative reforms.

Edward was returning from the (seventh) Crusade, when he heard of his accession at Capua. Devoting a year to Gascony, he reached England and was crowned in 1274.

During the barons' wars Wales had become practically independent, and Llewelyn, prince of North Wales, refused even nominal

submission to Edward until

1276-1284. Conquest of Wales.

- 1277. Edward led an army into Wales, and forced the prince to cede the coast district as far as Conway, and do homage for the rest.
- 1282. Insurrection of Llewelyn and his brother David. After hard fighting, the death of Llewelyn (Dec., 1282) and the capture of David (hanged, drawn, and quartered, Sept. 1283) led to the complete submission of the country. (No "Massacre of the Bards.")
- 1284. Annexation of Wales to England. After this the title "Prince of Wales" was generally given to the heir of the crown.
- 1289. Return of the king from a three years' absence in Gascony; punishment of the oppressive judges.

1290. Expulsion of the Jews from England (over 16,000).

- 1291. Death of the queen, Eleanor (daughter of Ferdinand III. of Castile). Erection of crosses along the route by which the body was carried from Lincolnshire to London; those at Northampton and Waltham still exist.
- 1292. Balliol, whom Edward had decided to be the rightful heir to the Scottish throne, did homage for the fief and became king of Scotland.

After the death of Alexander III. of Scotland the crown passed to his granddaughter Margaret, the Maid of Norway, to whom Edward had betrothed his son; but she died on the voyage from Norway (1290), and thirteen claimants for the crown appeared. The Scottish estates being unable to decide between the two strongest claimants, Balliol and Bruce, referred the case to Edward. (See the genealogy.)

1293. Hostilities between English sailors from the Cinque Ports (Dover, Sandwich, Hastings, Hythe, Romney) 1 and French mariners resulted in a naval battle. Philip IV. of France summoned Edward to Paris to answer for the occurrence. As a step in the negotiations the fortresses of Guienne were temporarily placed in Philip's hands, whereupon he declared Edward contumacious and his fiefs forfeited.

1294. Rebellion of *Madoc* in Wales suppressed.

1294. War with France followed by war with Scotland, which joined France.

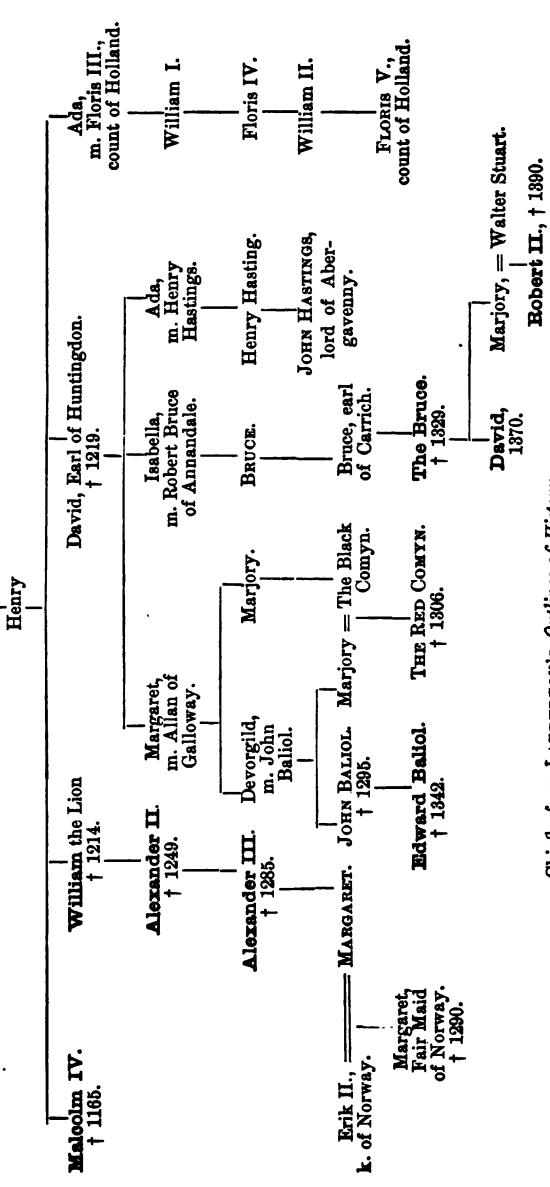
1296. Capture of Berwick; massacre of the inhabitants. Defeat

¹ These towns, to which Winchelsea, Rye, and Seaford were afterwards added, possessed peculiar privileges. They were under the care of the Warden of the Cinque Ports; their representatives in Parliament were known as barons. The towns were fortified under William I.

The Scottish Succession.

١

David I.† 1153.



Chiefly from LABBERTON'S Outlines of History.
Competitors in small caps. Kings of Scotland in heavy type.

of the Scots at *Dunbar*. Baliol resigned the crown and was imprisoned. Scotch coronation stone carried to London. Scotland under an English regent.

1297. Revolt of the Scots under Sir William Wallace. Defeat

of the regent.

Edward's demands for money from the clergy being refused (bull Clericis laicos, 1296), the recalcitrant clergy were placed under the ban.

In 1297 the king summoned the barons to follow him to Flanders. The resistance of the lords ended with the acquiescence of the king in the

1297. Re-issue of the Great Charter and the forest charter (Confirmatio chartarum) with additional articles, by which the right of taxation without the consent of Parliament was renounced (1301).

1298. Truce with France enabled Edward to invade Scotland. At

the

July 22. Battle of Falkirk,

the Scots under Wallace were completely defeated. Appeal to the Pope, who laid claim to the suzerainty over Scotland, — a claim which was rejected by the English lords in 1301.

1303. Peace of Amiens with France. Edward had previously married *Margaret*, sister of Philip IV., and betrothed his son Edward to Philip's daughter Isabella. Invasion of Scotland. Submission of *Bruce* and *Comyn*.

1305. Execution of Wallace, who had been betrayed to the English.

1306. Opposing claims of Bruce and Comyn; murder of Comyn, coronation of Robert Bruce (March 27).

1307, July 7. Death of Edward I., on his way to Scotland.

Legal and Legislative reforms under Edward.

1275. First statute of Westminster: a codification of previous statutes. Grant of a regular tax on exported wool, and of a fifteenth of movable property. These forms of taxation, the indirect customs duties, and the taxation of personal estate were intended to supplement the older land tax, which they gradually surpassed in importance.

Separation of the old king's court into three tribunals: Court of Exchequer, for cases where the royal revenue was involved; Court of King's Bench, with jurisdiction in all matters concerning the sovereign, and in criminal cases especially reserved for his decision ("pleas of the crown"); Court of Common Pleas, for cases between private individuals.

Development of the jurisdiction of: 1. the royal council (later the "Star Chamber"); 2. of the Chancellor, in cases where relief could not be obtained by the ordinary or "common" law. This higher jurisdiction emanating directly from the sovereign was known as equity.

1279. Statute of Mortmain (de religiosis), forbidding the alienation of land to religious bodies (whereby it became free from fendel dues)

feudal dues) without the permission of the king.

1285. Statute of Winchester, regulating the militia and the preservation of public order. Conservators of the Peace (later called Justices of the Peace) appointed in every shire to execute the provisions of the statute. Second Statute of Westminster, amending the Statute of Mortmain.

1290. Third Statute of Westminster (Quia emptores), providing that when land was alienated the sub-tenant should hold directly of

the overlord, and not of the tenant.

1295. Summons of the first perfect Parliament; clergy, barons summoned severally by special writ; commons summoned by writ to the sheriffs directing the election of two knights from each shire, two citizens from each city, two burghers from each borough.

1297. De Tallagio non Concedendo, prohibiting the imposition of

taxation without the consent of Parliament.

1307-1327. Edward II.,

fourth son of Edward I. Peace with Scotland; Aymer de Valence, governor. Recall of the king's favorite, Piers Gaveston, a Gascon, who had been banished by Edward I. Marriage of Edward II. with Isabella of France. Gaveston soon incurred the hatred of the barons, and he was banished (1308), soon, however, to be recalled.

1310. Government entrusted to twenty-one ordainers.

1311. Ordinances of the Parliament of 1311 presented by the ordainers. Reform of abuses; punishment of favorites; appointment of great officers by and with the consent and approval of the barons; consent of the barons necessary for declaration of war; parliaments to be called every year. Execution of Gaveston (1312).

The successes of Bruce in Scotland (capture of Linlithgow, 1311; Perth, 1312; Edinburgh, 1313; siege of Stirling, 1314) produced a temporary reconciliation between the king and the barons. Edward

marched to Scotland with 100,000 men, and in the

1314. Battle of Bannockburn,

June 24. was totally defeated by 30,000 foot-soldiers under Robert Bruce.

The king's new favorites, the two Despensers, father and son, were as displeasing to the nobility as Gaveston had been; in 1321 Parliament decreed the exile of the favorites. Edward showed unexpected energy; at the battle of Boroughbridge, the earl of Lancaster, the leader of the barons, was defeated and captured (executed March, 1322). Repeal of the ordinances of 1311. After an unsuccessful invasion of Scotland,

1323. Edward concluded peace for thirteen years with Bruce, whose assumption of the royal title was passed over in silence.

Isabella, sent to France in 1325 to treat with Charles IV., concerning the English fiefs in France, intrigued with Roger Mortimer and other hostile barons, and in 1326 landed in England. Capture of Bristol; execution of the Despensers; imprisonment of the king.

1327. Deposition of Edward II., in parliament; accession of his son, Edward. Edward, imprisoned in Berkeley Castle, was there murdered, Sept. 21, 1327.

1327-1377. Edward III.

Council of regency (earl of Lancaster), Edward being but fifteen years of age. The queen and Mortimer the true rulers.

1328. Unsuccessful war with Scotland. James, earl of Douglas. Treaty of Northampton. Bruce recognized as king, and feudal superiority of the English crown renounced.

330. Edward took the government into his own hands. Execution

of Mortimer. Imprisonment of the queen-mother.

The death of Robert Bruce (1329) was followed by civil war in Scotland, during which Edward Baliol seized the crown; Bruce's infant son, David, fled to France. Baliol did homage to Edward, which induced a revolt of the Scottish nobles; Baliol driven over the border. Edward hastened north; defeat of the Scots in the

1333. Battle of Halidon Hill, near Berwick (henceforward this town belonged to England). Baliol restored to the Scottish throne. Scotland south of the Forth ceded to England, and homage rendered for the remainder. Alliance between the patriotic

party in Scotland and France.

1337. War with France (the Hundred Years' War). Edward claimed the French crown in right of his mother (see p. 257).

1341. Completion of the separation of parliament into an Upper House (Lords), composed of the nobility, and a Lower House (Commons), composed of the representatives of boroughs and the knights of shires. The process of separation had begun as far back as the reign of Edward I.

The responsibility of ministers established by act of parliament

(revoked by the king in the same year).

1342. David Bruce returned to Scotland and recovered the throne.

Scotland henceforward independent.

1346. Battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham; defeat of the Scots; capture of David II., who was retained in captivity

until 1357. Battle of Crécy, p. 257.

1348-49. Black Death in England; more than a half of the population perished. As the visitations of the plague were especially heavy among the lower classes, a scarcity of labor and rise of wages followed, which led to the passing of the Statute of Laborers, regulating wages. In the next year (1350) laborers were forbidden to leave their own parish.

1356. Edward invaded and ravaged Scotland, but won no lasting success. Battle of Poitier, p. 258. In 1357 David was ransomed.

1360. Peace of Bretigny (p. 258). Renunciation of the French crown and of Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine. Cession in full sovereignty to England of Aquitaine (Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, Saintonge, the Limousin, the Angoumois, Perigord, Bigorre, Rouerque), Ponthieu, Guisnes, Calais.

1361. Return of the Black Death. Popular discontent. Preaching of John Ball. William Longland, author of Piers Plow-

man.

- 1369. Final visitation of the Black Death.
- 1370. Capture of Limoges by the Black Prince; massacre of the inhabitants (death of the Black Prince, June 8, 1376).
- 1371. John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III., married the daughter of *Pedro the Cruel* of Castile, and assumed the title of king of Castile.

Loss of all the English possessions in France, except Bordeaux, Calais, and Bayonne. Peace for three years (1374).

1376. The Good Parliament. Opposition of William of Wykeham and Peter de la Mare (Speaker of the Commons) to John of Gaunt. Punishment of favorites, reformation of the arbitrary royal council (Concilium Ordinarium). After the dissolution of the parliament John of Gaunt disregarded its enactments; to William of Wykeham he opposed John Wyclif (1327–1384), who taught that the property of the clergy was at the disposal of the crown.

1377, June 20. Death of Edward III.

During this reign the crime of treason was defined by the Statute of Treason (1351); transfer of a suit to foreign courts was prohibited (1353, future Statute of Præmunire); Parliament acquired the power of impeachment; trial by jury assumed a more modern form (separation of the old jury into a jury proper, and witnesses); a poll-tax was introduced (1377); English was directed to be used in courts of law (1361). In Ireland, the Statute of Kilkenny (1367) prohibited intermarriage of the English and Irish, and supplanted the native language and customs by English.

1377-1399. Richard II.,

son of the Black Prince, twelve years old. The king was in the hands of Parliament, and his uncles, the dukes of Lancaster (John of Gaunt), York, and Gloucester, were excluded from the regency. The war with France and Scotland requiring money, a polltax was assessed in 1379, and again in 1380.

1381. Revolt of the peasants under John Ball and Wat Tyler; capture of London; burning of the duke of Lancaster's palace, the Savoy. Wat Tyler killed by Walworth, mayor of London. Suppression of the revolt. Disregard of the charter abolishing serfdom, which Richard had at first granted. Villanage was, however, doomed.

Wyclif's doctrines spread by his "poor preachers." Denial of Transubstantiation (1381). Wyclif's adherents nicknamed Lollards by their opponents. Wyclif's translation of the Bible

1388. Battle of Chevy Chase (Otterburne), between Lord Henry Percy and the earl of Douglas; defeat of the English. (Ballad of Chevy Chase).

Quarrel between Richard and his favorites, (Robert de Vere, Michael de la Pole), and the parliament. In 1386, Continual Council under the duke of Gloucester, for one year. Defeat of the king; impeachment of Vere and others, before the "Wonderful" Parliament (1388). In 1389 Richard took the government into his own hands.

1393. Statute of Præmunire, prohibiting the introduction of papal bulls.

1396. Richard married Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France,

and concluded peace for 26 years.

1397. Imprisonment (and death) of the duke of Gloucester. Impeachment of the earls of Arundel, Warwick, Nottingham, Derby. Arundel was executed; Warwick imprisoned for life; Nottingham was made duke of Norfolk; Derby (Henry Bolinbroke, son of John of Gaunt), duke of Hereford.

1398. Quarrel between Hereford and Norfolk. The king forbade their combat, and banished Norfolk for life, Hereford for six

years.

Richard made an expedition to Ireland, where the isolation of the English who were settled within the conquered district, the so-called English Pale (Drogheda, Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, Cork) had rendered them almost independent of England. During his absence

1399. Henry Bolinbroke, since the death of his father, duke of Lancaster, landed in England. Richard returned from Ireland, only to be captured, deposed, and imprisoned in the castle of *Pontefract* (murdered?).

Geoffrey Chaucer (died 1400), Canterbury Tales.

1399-1461. House of Lancaster, a branch of the house of Plantagenet.

1399-1413. Henry IV.,

under which name the duke of Lancaster ascended the throne, the claims of Edmund Mortimer, earl of March, the true heir, being passed over.

1400. Conspiracy of the earls of Rutland, Huntingdon, Salisbury, Kent, and Spencer suppressed. Revolt of Wales under Owen Glendower; defeat of Sir Edmund Mortimer (1402).

1402. A Scottish inroad under the earl of Douglas defeated at Hom-

ildon Hill. Capture of Douglas.

As Henry refused to allow the ransom of Edmund Mortimer (he being the uncle of the young earl of March, the true heir to the crown), a conspiracy was formed against him by Harry Percy (Hotspur), brother-in-law of Mortimer, to whose family the king was largely indebted for his throne, who induced his father, the earl of Northumberland, and his uncle, the earl of Worcester, to join with himself, Glendower, and Douglas, and take up arms. In the

1403. Battle of Shrewsbury,

July 21. the conspirators were defeated. Harry Percy was killed and Douglas taken. Conspiracy of Mowbray and Scroop, archbishop of York; execution of the conspirators.

1405. Capture of James, heir of the Scottish throne, while on his way to the court of France (James was the second son of Robert III. of Scotland; the eldest, duke of Rothsay, had been starved to death by the king's brother, duke of Albany), and detained in England until 1423.

- 1408. Defeat of the earl of Northumberland and Lord Bardolph at Bramham Moor; death of the former.
- 1413. March 20. Death of Henry IV.

1413-1422. Henry ∇., *Monmouth*.

While prince, companion of wild rakes; as king, energetic and brave.

Trial and condemnation for heresy of Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), a friend of the king. Oldcastle escaped from prison, and a rising of the Lollards assumed formidable proportions; it was, however, easily suppressed. (Oldcastle captured and burned, 1417).

1415. Conspiracy of the earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope and Sir Thomas Grey detected. Execution of the conspirators.

1415-1420. War with France (p. 259).

1415. Oct. 25. Battle of Agincourt.

1417. Second invasion of France. In England, unsuccessful Scottish inroad ("The Foul Raid").

1420. May 21. Peace of Troyes.

Henry married Catharine, daughter of Charles VII. of France, and was accepted as regent and heir of the crown.

1421. Third invasion of France.

Death of Henry at Vincennes, August 31, 1422.

Use of English in the House of Commons. Sir Richard Whiting-ton, thrice lord mayor of London.

1422-1461. Henry VI., Windsor.

Not quite nine months old at his father's death. Parliament refused to appoint a regency, and named the king's uncle, duke of Gloucester, protector, in the absence of his brother, the duke of Bedford, who was regent in France.

1423. Liberation of James II. of Scotland, after the conclusion of an agreement with the English not to assist one another's enemies.

1422-1453. War in France. Expulsion of the English. (Joan of Arc.) See p. 260.

1437. James I. of Scotland murdered by the earl of Athol and Robert Grahame.

1445. Marriage of Henry VI. with Margaret, daughter of René, titular king of Naples and Jerusalem. Henry promised to restore to René his hereditary lands of Anjou and Maine. This marriage was the work of William de la Pole, earl of Suffolk (soon made a duke), whose influence at court surpassed that of the earlier adviser, Cardinal Beaufort (died 1447). Arrest and suspicious death of the duke of Gloucester. The loss of Normandy was followed by the impeachment of Suffolk, who was banished by Henry, but seized at sea and put to death (1450).

1450. Rebellion of Jack Cade ("Mortimer").

The insurgents occupied London and murdered Lord Say, one of the ministers. The rebellion was soon suppressed, and Cade, while in hiding, was killed by Abexander Iden.

The government now passed into the hands of Richard, duke of York, grandson of the *fifth* son of Edward III., son of Anna Morti-

mer, heiress of the claims of the third line, who returned to England from Ireland; his power, however, was not enough to oust his rival, the duke of Somerset, grandson of John of Gaunt, and in 1452 he was induced to dismiss his army, and then forced to swear allegiance.

James II. of Scotland murdered William, earl of Douglas;

defection of the Douglases to England.

1453. Battle of Castillon in France. Death of Talbot, earl of Shrewsbury. Surrender of Bordeaux. Of all the English possessions in France Calais alone was left in their hands.

1453. Birth of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI. Insanity of Henry. The duke of York protector. Imprisonment of Somerset. The recovery of the king in 1454 was followed by the restoration of Somerset to power.

The duke of York, the earls of Salisbury and Warwick,

now took up arms against Henry and his advisers.

1455-1485. Wars of the Red Rose of Lancaster and the White Rose of York (see the genealogical table).

1455. Battle of St. Albans. York victorious. Death of Somer-May 22. set; capture of Henry. A hollow reconciliation (1458)

was followed by a new resort to arms. At the battle of Bloreheath (Sept. 23, 1459), the Lancastrians were defeated. The victory was a barren one for York; defection in his army caused him to abandon the contest and retire to Ireland. Flight of Yorkist leaders. York and his party attainted of treason by the Parliament of Coventry.

1460. Landing of the earls of Salisbury, March (afterwards Ed-

ward IV.), and Warwick, in England. In the

1460. Battle of Northampton,

July 10. the Lancastrians were defeated; capture of Henry; flight of Margaret and her son to Scotland. The duke of York entered London and preferred his claim to the crown. Parliament decided that he should succeed Henry.

1460. Battle of Wakefield.

Dec. 30. Defeat of York by the queen and Prince Edward. York fell on the field, the earl of Salisbury and the duke of Rutland, son of York, were killed.

1461. Battle of Mortimer's Cross, near Hereford. Defeat of the Feb. 2. Lancastrians by the son of the duke of York, Edward, earl of March (now duke of York).

Feb. 17. Second Battle of St. Albans.

Defeat of the Yorkists under Warwick. Release of Henry. The earl of March, however, came to the rescue, joined the remnants of Warwick's army with his own, and entered London, where he was proclaimed king by acclamation, March 3, 1461.

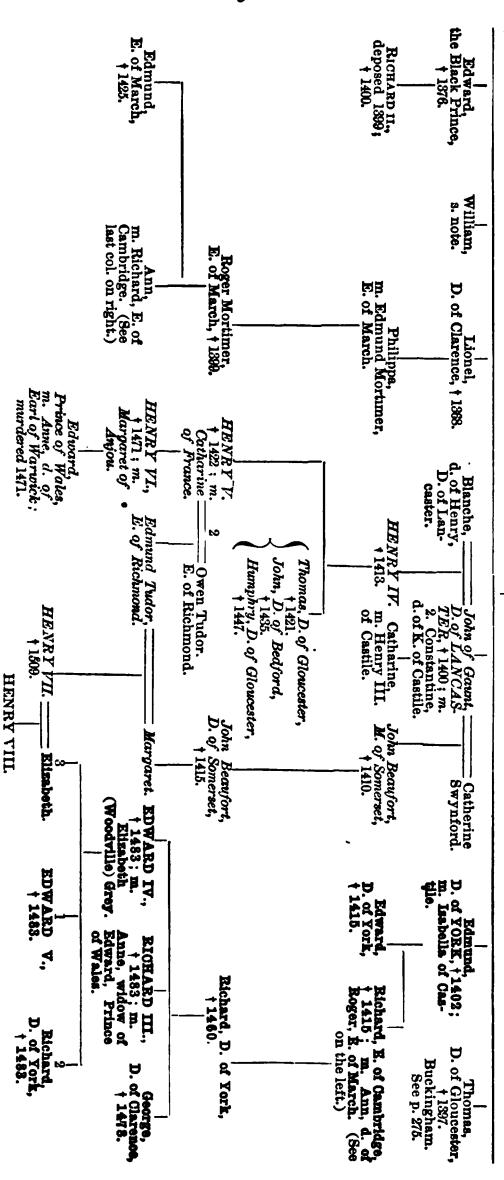
1461-1485. House of York (branch line of the house of Plantagenet).

1461-1483. Edward IV.

The early part of his reign was disturbed by constant attempts of the Lancastrians to overthrow the new dynasty.

LANCASTER AND YORK.

EDWARD III. † 1377.



Kings of England in capitals; Lancaster in italics; York in heavy type. D. = Duke, E. = Earl, M. = marquis, K. = king, d. = daughter, m. = married, † = died. Norn. —Edward VII. had six sons. The second, William, is sometimes omitted in the genealogies,

1461, March 27. Battle of Ferry Bridge. Defeat of the Lancastrians.

March 29. Battle of Towton. After a most obstinate fight Edward and Warwick prevailed, and the Lancastrians were totally

defeated (said to have lost 28,000 men).

Edward was crowned (June 28), and his brothers, George and Edward, were created dukes (Clarence and Gloucester). In 1462 Margaret obtained assistance from France, and made two attempts to retrieve the Lancastrian cause, but both were unsuccessful. Henry retired to Wales; Margaret to Lorraine. A final uprising of the Lancastrians was crushed at Hedgeley Moor and at Hexham (1464).

Richard Woodville, baron Rivers, and widow of Sir John Grey, a Lancastrian. This marriage and the advancement conferred on the family of the new queen much exasperated the earl of Warwick and the other Yorkists. The dissatisfaction of Warwick was increased by the marriage of Edward's sister Margaret with the duke of Burgundy, and he intrigued with the duke of Clarence, giving him his daughter in marriage and promising him the crown. Revolt of William of Rydesdale in 1469. Execution of the queen's father, Earl Rivers. Edward became reconciled with Warwick, but a victory over the insurgents at Stamford ("Loose-coat Field") (1470) so strengthened the king that he proclaimed Warwick and Clarence traitors, and they fled to France. Reconciliation of Warwick and Margaret.

1470. Warwick landed in England, occupied London, and proclaimed Henry (who had been imprisoned since 1465) king. Edward fled to Burgundy, but returning with assistance was well received, and joined by Clarence. Re-imprisonment of

Henry.

1471, April 4. Battle of Barnet.

The Lancastrians under Warwick (the king-maker) totally defeated.

May 4. Battle of Tewksbury.

Defeat of Margaret, who was captured; murder of her son Edward. Henry VI. died in the Tower May 22, the day when Edward IV. reëntered London.

1475. Invasion of France by Edward, who, in connivance with the duke of Burgundy, claimed the French crown. Subscriptions supposed to be voluntary (benevolences), without consent of Parliament, now first introduced to raise money for this invasion. The war was ended without a battle by the Peace of Pequigny (1475). Truce for seven years; payment of a large annual sum to England; ransom of Margaret; betrothal of the dauphin to Edward's eldest daughter, Elizabeth.

1478. Trial and condemnation of Clarence for treason. He was executed in the Tower. (Popular report that he was drowned

in a butt of malmsey.)

1480. War with Scotland, which was ended by the Treaty of Fotheringay, wherein Berwick was surrendered to the English.

As Louis XI. now refused to consent to the marriage of the dauphin

with Edward's daughter, as arranged at the treaty of Pequigny, Edward resolved on war, but died suddenly, April 9, 1483.

1483. April-June. Edward V.

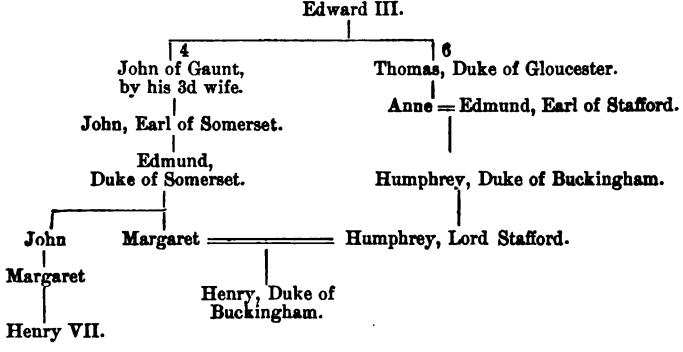
Richard, duke of Gloucester, regent for the thirteen-year-old king. The king and his brother, duke of York, confined in the Tower. Richard created protector. Execution of Lord Hastings. Gloucester advanced a claim to the crown, based on the asserted invalidity of Edward III.'s marriage with Elizabeth Woodville. The claim being admitted by Parliament, Richard accepted the crown (June 26).

1483-1485. Richard III.

The new king began his reign by a progress in the north. Murder of the two princes in the Tower (Tyrell and Dighton). The Duke of Buckingham (to whose services Richard largely owed the crown), headed an insurrection in favor of Henry, earl of Richmond (great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt). Execution of Buckingham. Return of Richmond to France without landing. 1484. Confirmation of Richard's title by Parliament.

The following table shows the derivation of Buckingham from Ed-

ward III.: -



In 1485 Richmond made another attempt, landed at Milford Haven, and completely defeated Richard in the

1485. Battle of Bosworth Field, Aug. 22. where Richard was slain.

In 1471 William Caxton, printer, established a press at West-minster; in 1474, he published "The Game and Playe of Chesse," the first book printed in England.

§ 5. SPANISH PENINSULA.

Spain.

The Moors in Spain were, since 1238, confined to the kingdom of Granada, where agriculture, commerce, and industry flourished.

Wars with the Christian kingdoms, occasionally in alliance with Morocco.

1492. Conquest of Granada and union of the kingdom with Castile.

The kingdoms of Castile and Aragon during this period were involved in constant wars, ever renewed and of varying fortune, with the Moors and with one another. In both kingdoms bloody wars of succession and civil wars.

Of the kings of Castile may be mentioned, in the thirteenth century Sancho IV., in the fourteenth Peter the Cruel and Henry the Bastard, the first of whom was aided, in his war with Henry for the throne, by England (victory of the Black Prince at Najara, 1367), the latter by France. Mercenary bands or free companies, under Bertrand du Guescelin. Peter defeated and killed at Montiel in 1369.

Peter III. (1276-1285) of Aragon acquired the crown of Sicily, which he bequeathed to his second son, James, while his eldest son, Alphonso III., succeeded him in Aragon. His successor, Peter IV., curbed the excessive power of the nobility of Aragon. In 1410, after the extinction of the royal family of Catalonia, a Castilian prince, Ferdinand, ascended the throne of Aragon. His grandson, Ferdinand the Catholic (1479-1516), by the marriage which he had made before his elevation to the throne with Isabella, heiress of Castile, laid the foundation for the final union of the two kingdoms.

Portugal.

The legitimate line of Burgundy became extinct (1383), and was succeeded by the illegitimate Burgundian line. Heroic age of Portugal, which now reached its greatest power. Conquests, Ceuta, Tangiers; formation of a Christian kingdom of Algarbe on the northern coast of Africa. Voyages and discoveries (p. 279), under the patronage of the Infant, Henry the Navigator (1394–1460; discovery of Porto Santo and Madeira, 1418–19; Cape Verde, 1445; Azores, 1447; Cape Verde Islands, 1455).

§ 6. THE NORTH AND EAST.

Denmark, Norway Sweden.

Each a united kingdom from the second half of the ninth century on, converted to Christianity about 1000, were united by the Union of Calmar (1397). Margaret, queen of Denmark, daughter of Waldemar IV., married Hako VIII. of Norway, and after the death of Hako succeeded to the throne, at first for her minor son († 1387). The crown of Sweden was transferred to her by the estates of that kingdom. The union lasted (interrupted by Sweden) to 1524.

Russia.

From 862 to 1598, under the house of Rurik, converted by Vladimir the Great 988, soon divided into many principalities, which were in theory subordinate to the Grand Prince of Kiev, but practically were

tolerably independent. During the supremacy of the Mongols in Russia, which endured 250 years, there grew up a new grand principality, that of Moscow, which after the devastation of Kiev by the Mongols (1239), and its conquest by the Lithuanians (1320, p. 169), became the national centre of Russia. After a long contest the Mongol supremacy in Russia was overthrown (1480) by Ivan IV., the Great, the founder of the united monarchy. Republic of Novgorod subjugated (1478).

Poland.

Under the Piasts (840–1370, Christian about 1000) involved in war with Germany, with the heathen Prussians (later with the Teutonic knights), and with Russia. The last king of this house was Casimir the Great. Short union with Hungary under Louis the Great (1370–1382). Louis' younger daughter, Hedwig, married the grand duke of Lithuania, Vladislav II. Jagello, whereby Poland and Lithuania were united under the house of Jagello from 1386 to 1572. Conversion of Lithuania.

Prussia.

Conquered in the thirteenth century by the Teutonic order (p. 218), since 1309 residence of the grand master at Marienburg. The order attained its greatest power under Winrich von Kniprode (1351–1382); beginning of a gradual decline. Defeat of the order by the Poles at Tannenberg (1410).

The energy and daring of Henry of Plauen brought about the advantageous first peace of Thorn (1411). The revolt of the Prussian nobles in the country and the cities and their alliance with Poland led to the second peace of Thorn (1466): West Prussia and Ermeland ceded to Poland; the order retained East Prussia as a Polish fief.

Hungary.

Toward the close of the ninth century Hungary was occupied by the Finnish tribe of Magyars (p. 193); until 1301 under the reigning house of the Arpads. Introduction of Christianity by the duke Geisa and his son St. Stephan, the first king of Hungary (crowned 1000). Extensive immigration of Germans. Ecclesiastical division of the country into ten bishoprics; political division into seventy-two counties (Gespanschaften). Formation of a powerful aristocracy (Magnats). The Golden Bull extorted from King Andrew II. (contemporary of the emperor Frederic II.), after his return from a crusade (p. 216), is the foundation of the privileges of the Hungarian nobility.

After the extinction of the Arpads, Hungary came under the house of Anjou (1308-1382). Period of greatest power under Louis the Great (1342-1382), who in 1370, succeeded to the throne of Poland also.

Under Sigismund of the house of Luxemburg (1387-1437), be-

¹ Vambery, Ursprung d. Magyaren, endeavors to prove the Turkish origin of this people; they were, at all events, Turanian. — TRANS.

ginning of the decline of the kingdom. Albert of Austria (1438–1439), and afterwards, Vladislav III. of Poland, elected king; the latter fell at Varna (1444) in battle against the Turks, whereupon Albert's minor son, Ladislaus Postumus, succeeded. The chancellor of the kingdom, John Hunyadi, defeated the Turks at Belgrade (1456). After his death and that of Ladislaus, Hunyadi's son, Matthias Corvinus, became king (1458–1490). After his brilliant reign Hungary was united with Bohemia under Ladislaus II., of the house of Jagello, and the succession was secured to the archduke Maximilian of Austria.

Turks, Mongols, and the Eastern Empire.

Supremacy of the Osman (Ottoman) Turks, Turcoman nomads, founded in Asia Minor by Osman I., about 1300. His successors, Urchan, Murad I., and Bajazet I., extended Turkish power during the fourteenth century to the confines of Europe (Adrianople, residence of the sovereigns in 1365).

The development of the Osmanic power was temporarily checked by the Mongols under Timur Lenk (i. e. the Lame), commonly called Tamerlane or Timur the Tatar, Bajazet being defeated and captured in 1402 at Angora. One of Bajazet's successors, Muhammed II., destroyed the Eastern Empire, which had been under the rule of the Palæologi since 1261, by the

1453. Conquest of Constantinople.

Flight of Grecian scholars to Italy, where they taught in the universities, and gave the impulse to a new study of Grecian literature.

China.

In 1403 the rebellious prince, Yen, succeeded to the throne under the name Yung-lo (1403-1425), and proved an efficient ruler, carrying his arms into Tatary, and annexing Cochin-China and Tonquin to China. Under Seuen-tih (1426-1436) Cochin-China revolted. Chingtung (1436-1465) fell into the hands of the Tatars in 1450, and remained a prisoner until released by a Chinese victory in 1457. The quiet reigns of Ching-hwa (1465-1488) and Hung-che (1488-1506) were unmarked by important events.

Japan.

Under the domination of the Ashikaga Shoguns (1336-1573), whose founder, Ashikaga-Taka-Uji, set up a rival emperor, Japan was under two dynasties,—the southern (legitimate) at Yoshino, the northern (usurpers) at Kioto; the true sovereigns, meantime, were the Shoguns at Kioto. The period is a dark one, filled with constant wars between the dynasties, and civil wars in Kioto.

It is curious to reflect that in the midst of these wretched wars Columbus was sending messengers into the interior of Cuba charged with letters to the sovereign of Japan, whereby he hoped to open communication for Spain with a monarch whose power was as limitless as his wealth.

III. MODERN HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

FROM THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA TO THE PEACE OF WEST-PHALIA (1492-1648).

§ 1. INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND COLONIES.

Three inventions, whose discovery belongs to the Middle Age, but which came into more common use at the beginning of the modern period, have played a very important part in the total change in society which followed. 1. The magnetic needle, probably early discovered by the Chinese, applied in navigation (compass) in the east in the thirteenth century; in the west at the beginning of the fourteenth (by Flavio Gioja?). This invention materially advanced the discoveries of the new era. 2. Gunpowder, probably introduced into Europe from Asia (China, India, Arabia). According to a tradition whose truth can no longer be maintained, invented by the monk, Berthold Schwarz, at Freiburg in the Breisgau, 1354 (?). It was first used in Europe about the middle of the fourteenth century. The new class of weapons thus introduced were at first in the highest degree imperfect, and of but little value; but their improvement gradually brought about a complete revolution in military science and art, and thereby led to the destruction of chivalry. Standing armies took the place of the feudal levies, and aided the princes to triumph over the lower order of feudal nobility. 3. Printing (p. 253), which was more widely spread after the conquest of Mainz (1462), had scattered the assistants of Fust to various lands. This invention would, however, have very largely failed of its effect, but for the improvement made at about the same time in the manufacture of Paper.

- 1492. Discovery of America by Columbus (Colon). For details and the further course of discovery see page 282, etc.
- 1498. Ocean route to the East Indies discovered by Vasco de Gama.

After the Canary Islands, Madeira, and the Azores had been discovered by daring sailors (especially Italians) in the first half of the fourteenth century, but had since been partially forgotten, the Portuguese at the instance of the Infant, Henry the Navigator (p. 276), be-

gan in 1415 to push southward along the coast of Africa in order to find the way to India. The death of Henry (1460) interrupted the progress of discovery for a considerable time, but in 1486 Bartholomæus Diaz reached Cabo tormentoso, called by John II., Cabo de buena esperanza (Cape of Good Hope), and in 1498 Vasco de Gama landed on the coast of Malabar (Calicut, p. 353). (Martin Beheim of Nuremberg, author of the celebrated globe still preserved in that city, which shows the state of geographical knowledge just before the discovery of America (1492), was in the service of the king of Portu-

gal.)

The Eastern trade (in silk, cotton, pearls, spices and other luxuries), had been carried on partly by land through central Asia, and partly across the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea, and across Arabia and through the Persian Gulf. The conquests of Islam, and especially the capture of Constantinople, had greatly diminished the number of profitable routes, so that the discovery of a new route became of great importance, especially to the maritime nations of western Europe who had been excluded from trade with the East, wherein the merchant republics of Italy, Pisa, Genoa, Venice, had grown rich and powerful. The Portuguese attempted the eastern route around Africa. Columbus found at the court of Spain patrons willing to try the experiment of a western route, at once (according to the data with which he reckoned) shorter and simpler.

The success of the Portuguese struck a mortal blow at the prosperity of Alexandria and the great cities of Italy, and secured a monopoly of the Eastern trade to *Portugal* for one hundred years, after which it passed into the hands of the *Dutch* and *English*.

The failure of Columbus had a still greater importance in history, disclosing a new world, where immigrants from the old should develop

new political constitutions and new social conditions.

The Portuguese power in the East Indies was founded by the vice-roy Almeida (1504–1509), and especially by Albuquerque (1509–1515; see p. 353).

1519-1522. First voyage around the world under Ferdinand Magalhæs (Magellan),

a Portuguese who had entered the Spanish service. Passage to the Pacific through the Straits of Magellan. Magalhæs was killed in 1521 on one of the Philippine Islands.

§ 2. AMERICA.

It is probable that as early as 1000 the Northmen, who had occupied *Iceland* since 874 and had thence made settlements in *Greenland* (985), had not only discovered but had tried to colonize the continent of *America* (Vinland).¹

¹ More than a dozen claims to the discovery or attempts at the discovery of America before Columbus have been preferred by various nationalities, a brief list of which is here appended: 1. St. Brandan (565) and St. Maclovius (Malo) in the sixth century. 2. Seven Spanish bishops (714 or 734); Island of Seven Cities, also called Antillia, a name afterwards transferred to the Antilles. 3. Buddhist priests from China (458), followed by Hoei-Shin (499),

- 986. Bfarni Herjulfson saw the coast of Vinland, but did not land.
- 1001. Leif Erikson discovered Helluland, Markland, Vinland, where he built some booths.
- 1002. Thorwald Erikson coasted along Kjalarnes and died at Krossanness.
- 1007-1009. Thorfinn Karlsefne, under whom a colony was established which remained several years in Vinland. Birth of the child
- 1011. Helge and Finnborge with Freydis, wife of Thorwald. tragical ending of this settlement seems to have discouraged colonization; yet traces of intercourse are observable for a long time, (1121, Bishop Erik of Greenland; 1266, voyage of clergymen of Greenland to the Arctic regions; 1255, Adelhard and Thorwald Helgason; 1347, voyage of seventeen men from Greenland).

The identification of the places visited and named by the Northmen is attended with great, perhaps insurmountable difficulties. detailed exposition of Rafn (Helluland = Newfoundland or Labrador; Markland = Nova Scotia; Vinland = Mt. Hope Bay; Kjalarness = Cape Cod; Krossanness = Boston Harbor) is hardly to be accepted; some writers place the southern limit of discovery at the southern point of Newfoundland.1

Wherever they were made, the settlements of the Northmen in America were not lasting, and the remembrance of them had almost passed away by the fourteenth century. Although Columbus had

discovered Fou-sang. (See Leland, Fou-sang, for arguments in favor of this discovery.) 4. Basques; Juan de l'Estraide (about 1000). 5. Northmen (986). 6. Ari Marson, from Limerick in Ireland (982) discovered Huitramann land (White Man's Land) or Irland it Mikla (Great Ireland). South Carolina? Florida? He was succeeded by Bjärni Asbrandson (999), and Gudleif Gudlangson (1029). 7. Arabians; Almaghruins (in the eleventh century). 8. Madoc ap Gwynedd, a Welsh prince (1170). 9. Vadino and Guido Vivalda (1281), Theodoro Doria and Ugolino Vivalda (1292), Venetians. 10. Nicolo and Antonio Zeno (1380-90). This "discovery" involves an older one made by a fisherman of "Frislanda" about 1360. 11. Cortereal, 1403. 12. Szkolny, a Polish pilot (1476). 13. Alonzo Sanchez de Helva (1484), the pilot who as some claim died in the house of Columbus, leaving his journal in the latter's hands. 14. Martin Behaim (1484). 15. Cousin and Pinzon from Dieppe (1487).

This discovery of America has been assigned to still other races by disputants over the origin of the American Indians, among which may be mentioned: Egyptians, Tyrians, Phænicians, Canaanites, Norwegians, Chinese, Iberians, Scythians, Tatars, Jews (the Lost Tribes), Romans, Malays; there is also the theory of settlement by the inhabitants of Atlantis, and of a new creation. It is pleasant, from a patriotic standpoint, to state that it has been recently asserted

that Europe was originally populated from America.

1 Three "relics" of the Northmen have been famous in their time. 1. The Writing Rock on the Taunton River near Dighton, Mass. It was claimed that the inscription was in runes, and it has been interpreted by northern scholars to contain an account of the vovage of Thorfinn, but it seems at present that Washington's opinion of the Indian origin of the picture writing is to be accepted as correct. 2. The Old Stone Mill at Newport, R. I. The northern origin of this structure can hardly be maintained against the more probable theory of its construction by Gov. Benedict Arnold in the latter half of the seventeenth century. 3. The "Skeleton in Armor," discovered in the early part of the present century at Fall River, Mass., is now admitted to have been that of an Indian.

visited Iceland in 1477, it is not probable that he had heard of them; it is evident, from his own writings, that he had no suspicions of the existence of a continent southwest of Iceland.¹

Christoforo Colombo (he called himself and signed himself, after he became a Spaniard, regularly Christobal Colon), born (1435?, 1456?) at Genoa, of plebeian origin, a sailor from his earliest youth, wished to try a western route by sea to India (by which name in his day, the whole East was meant), and especially to Zipangu, (Japan) the magic island, which the Venetian Marco Polo (travels 1271-1295) had described in the book Mirabilia Mundi. Starting from the erroneous calculations of Ptolemy and Marinus concerning the size of the earth and the length of the habitable region (the Eastern Continent), Columbus made the circumference of the earth too short by a sixth, thus locating Zipangu in about the position of the Sandwich Islands. His plans having been rejected by Portugal (after the failure of an expedition secretly despatched westward to discover land), Columbus in 1486 accepted the service of the crown of Castile (Isabella). Delayed in the execution of his project by the Arabian war and the lack of money at the court, he was about to offer his services at the court of France or England, when the capture of Grenada promised the necessary means for the expedition.² Contract with Columbus, who received nobility, the hereditary dignity of admiral and viceroy, and one tenth of the income from the newly discovered lands.

- 1492, Aug. 3-1493, March 15. First Voyage. Departure from Palos with three small vessels on the 3d of August, from the Canaries on Sept. 6. On Oct. 12, landing on Guanahani,⁸ one of the Bahama islands. Discovery of Cuba (called by Columbus Juanna) and Hayti (Española, St. Domingo). wreck off Hayti, foundation of the first colony (Navidad) on that island.
- 1493, May 3. Bull of Alexander VI. establishing the line of partition, which divided that part of the world not possessed by any Christian prince between Spain and Portugal by a meridian line one hundred degrees west of the Azores. All W. of that line to fall to Spain, all E. of it, to Portugal. This compromise between the claims of the Spaniards based on the discoveries of Columbus, and those of the Portuguese based on their discoveries in the Atlantic, was afterwards revised so that the line was extended 270 leagues further west (1473).
- 1493, Sept 25–1496, June 11. Second voyage of Columbus from Cadiz, with seventeen vessels and 1500 persons.

Discovery of the Lesser Antilles (inhabited by Caribs, which Colum-

1 See Peschel: Gesch. d. Zeitalters d. Entdeckungen, 2d ed., p. 84

² That Columbus laid his plans before Genoa is unhistorical (Peschel, 2d

ed. p. 120).

8 The chief claimants for the honor of having been the first landing place of Columbus are Cat Island, Turk's Island, Watling's Island, Samana. The latter claim was first advanced, and ably advocated by Capt. G. V. Fox in his "Attempt to solve the Problem of the First Landing Place of Columbus in the New World." Wash. 1882. (U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.)

bus misunderstood, Canibs, whence Cannibals) and the island of Jamaica. Voyage along the southern coast of Cuba to within a short distance of the western end. Foundation of Isabella in Hayti (Dec. 1493), of San Domingo on the same island by Bartholomew Columbus.

1497, May-Aug. Voyage of John and Sebastian Cabot from Bristol with two vessels. Discovery of land (*Prima Vista*, probably some part of Newfoundland) June 24, 1497 (not 1494). They explored the coast N. to 67½° N. and S. for an uncertain distance, probably not so far as *Florida*, as has been claimed.

1497. First (alleged) voyage of Amerigo Vespucci. Discovery of the continent of South America. This voyage is doubtful though many give it credence.

1498, May-July (?). Voyage of Sebastian Cabot; doubtful results (68° N. to 35° N. ?).

1498, May 30-1500, Nov. 20. Third voyage of Columbus. Discovery of Trinidad (July 31), the continent of South America (Aug. 1); discovery of the mouth of the Orinoco. Exploration of the coast as far as Cape Vela (Margarita). Return of Columbus to Hispaniola. Dangerous revolt of Roldan, with whom the admiral was obliged to conclude a treaty. Columbus, who was disliked by the settlers on account of his foreign birth, and his avarice,—a vice from which he cannot be absolved,—was accused at court. Bobadilla, sent out as judge with especial powers, sent Columbus and his brother in chains to Spain (1500). Columbus was at once released upon his arrival and treated with distinction; he retained the dignity of admiral, but as viceroy was superseded by Ovando.

1499 May-1500, June. Voyage of Alonzo de Hojeda and Amerigo Vespucci.

Discovery of Surinam, Paria, Venezuela and the coast of South America to 3° N. (mouths of the Amazon?). This is often called the second voyage of Vespucci, but the first voyage, which he is said to have made in 1497, when he reached the continent of South America, is doubtful.

Vespucci was a learned Florentine (1451–1512) who participated in two Portuguese voyages to South America, entered the service of Castile in 1505, and filled the position of Royal Pilot from 1508 until his death, a post in which he rendered important services to science, particularly in the construction of maps. The new world was called after him, not by him, America. The originator of this name was Martin Waltzemüller (Hylacomylus) from Freiburg in the Breisgau, professor at St. Die in Lorraine (1507). The name of America spread at first only in Germany and Switzerland, and did not come into general use until the close of the sixteenth century.²

¹ **Peschel**, 2d ed., p. 272.

² Humboldt, Examen critique de l'histoire et de la géographie du nouveau continent; Peschel, Gesch. d. Zeitalter d. Entdeckungen, cap. XIII., Abhandlungen zur Erd-und Völkerkunde, 1877. Two attempts have been recently made to derive America from a native word. Jules Marcou, in the Atlantic Monthly (1875, March), and T. H. Lambert, in the Bulletin of the American Geographical Soc. for 1883, p. 45. According to the former, America is a corruption of the Indian name of a range of mountains in Venezuela; the latter derives it from a native name of the empire of the Incas in Peru. The first dated map to bear the name "America" was that in the edition of Solinus of 1520, by Apianus.

1499, Dec.-1500, Sept. Voyage of Vincent Yañez Pinzon from Palos.

Discovery of Cape Augustine (Feb. 28), of the Amazon. Pas-

sage of the equator. This voyage traced the South American

coast to 8° 20' S.

1500, April. Pedro Alvarez Cabral, bound for the East Indies, was accidentally(?) carried westward until he reached the coast of Brazil, in about 10° S. He called the country Terra Sanctæ Crucis, and took possession of it for Portugal.

1500. Gaspar de Cortereal, a Portuguese, discovered Newfoundland (Conception Bay), the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and the

coast of Labrador.

1501. Cortereal sailed again in the hope of finding the passage to the East Indies, a hope which inspired the continuous efforts of nearly all the early explorers. He was lost upon the voyage.

1501. Second voyage of Vespucci under a Portuguese commander.

1502, May 11-1504, Nov. 7. Fourth (and last) voyage of Columbus. Discovery of the Bay of Honduras, Darien (Porto Bello). Shipwreck at Jamaica.

Columbus died in Valladolid (1506) without a suspicion that he had discovered a new continent, and in the firm belief that his discoveries were parts of Asia. His son, Don Diego Columbus, viceroy and admiral. A grandson and great grandson of the discoverer retained

the hereditary title of admiral.

Succeeding voyages [de Bastides, Hojeda (with Vespucci?), Miguel Cortereal (1502), Vespucci (3d voyage, 1503), Juan de la Cosa (1505), etc.] examined more minutely the coasts already discovered, while in the Spanish possessions the work of settlement and conquest was being pushed forward. Cruelties inflicted on the Indians of the West Indies, whose race disappeared with frightful rapidity. It is probable that more was learned of the coasts of both Americas in this period than has been divulged; the rivalry of Spain and Portugal leading to a careful secrecy regarding all discoveries. The exact historical value of the D'Este map, just discovered by M. Harrisse, cannot be known as yet, but seems to have clearly established the fact that the coast of North America from Florida to beyond Cape Cod was well known to the Portuguese in 1502.

1504. French fishermen at the banks of Newfoundland.

1506. Jean Denys of Honfleur, and Camart of Rouch, examined (and sketched) the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

1508. Juan Diaz de Solis and Vincent Yañez Pinzon traced the coast of South America as far as 40° S. Discovery of Yucatan.

1508. Circumnavigation of Cuba, by Ocampo. Aubert in the St. Law-rence.

Importation of negroes from Africa to the Spanish possessions in the West Indies where they were employed in the mines.

1511. Conquest of Cuba by Diego Velasquez.

1512. Discovery of Florida by Juan Ponce de Leon, governor (since 1510) of Porto Rico.

1513. Discovery of the Pacific Ocean by Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, who crossed the isthmus from Santa Maria on the Gulf

- of Darien (founded 1510). Balboa was put to death in 1514 by Davila, governor of Darien, Carthagena, and Uraba (Castila del Oro).
- 1516. Voyage of Juan Diaz de Solis in search of a passage to the East Indies. Discovery of the Rio de la Plata, on the banks of which river Solis was killed by the natives.

1516. Alleged voyage of Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert. It is very doubtful if this voyage was made, or if made, what part of America was reached.

Bartholome de Las Casas (1474-1566) went to the Indies in 1502 with Columbus, bishop of Chiapa (in Mexico), advocate and protector of the Indians.

- 1517. Francis Hernandez Cordova discovered Yucatan (Cape Cartoche); advanced civilization of the inhabitants (Mayas), who were under the supremacy of the Aztec empire in Mexico.
- 1518. Juan de Grivalja coasted from Yucatan to Panuco, and brought back tidings of the Mexican empire of Montezuma. Name of "New Spain" given to the region which he explored.

1519. Alvarez Pinedo, by order of the governor of Jamaica, Garay, coasted from Cape Florida to the river of Panuco.

1519-1521. Conquest of Mexico by Hernando Cortez (1485-1547),

whom Velasquez, the governor of Cuba, had appointed to the command of a small force of 600 foot, sixteen cavalry, thirteen cross-bowmen, fourteen cannon, but immediately removed. Cortez sailed against the will of the governor. Capture of Tabasco (March). Landing at St. Juan de Uloa (April 21). Negotiations with Montezuma, who ordered the invaders to leave the kingdom. Cortez, elected general by the troops, dispatched one ship to carry a report to king Charles of Spain, and beached (not burned) the rest. Foundation of Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz. In alliance with the Tlascalans Cortez marched upon Mexico, the capital of Montezuma (Montecuhcuma), who admitted him to the city (Nov. 8). Daring seizure of the king in his own house. Cortez was obliged to march against Narvaez whom Velasquez had sent to chastise him. He defeated Narvaez, and strengthening his army with the soldiers of his opponent, returned to Mexico (1520, June). Revolt of the Mexicans, storm of the temple, death of Montezuma of wounds inflicted by his subjects, who were indignant at his submission to the Spaniards. The Spaniards, leaving the city (July 1), were furiously attacked on one of the causeways through the lake and suffered terrible loss (Noche triste). Reinforced, Cortez defeated the Mexicans in a pitched battle near Otompan (July 8). Occupation of Tescuco (Dec. 31). Conquest of Iztapalapan (1521). After having built a fleet of thirteen vessels which were transported by land and launched in the lake of Mexico, Cortez laid siege to the capital. After a long investment, accompanied with an almost daily storm (May-Aug. 13, 1521) the city was taken. Capture of the king Guatemozin, who was tortured and

finally executed. Submission of the country. Cortez, at first governor of New Spain with unlimited power, was afterwards restricted to the chief command of the military forces. Prosecuting the search for a western passage he discovered *California* (1526). Cortez returned to Spain in 1540, and died at Seville in 1547.

1520. Nov. 7-Nov. 28. Passage of the Straits of Magellan by

Magalhæs, see p. 280.

1520. Voyage undertaken for slaves at the suggestion of Lucas Vasquez d'Ayllon, exploration of the east coast of North America to 32° or 34° N. Cabo de Sta Helena, "Chicora."

1522. Discovery of the Bermudas.

1524. Alleged voyage of Giovanni de Verrazzano in the service of the king of France. The letter of Verrazzano which gives the only existing account of the voyage ascribes to the writer the discovery of the east coast of North America from 34° (39°) N. to 50° N. It has been thought that many places mentioned can be identified. The truth of the whole story has been disputed, but present opinion seems to be in favor of its acceptance (?).

1524. Geographical congress of Badajos, to settle the boundary between Spain and Portugal in the eastern hemisphere, which should correspond to the line of Alexander VI. in the western; after a stormy session the council separated without reaching

an agreement.

1525-1527. Exploration of the coast of Peru by Francisco Pizarro (1478 (?)-1541), as a preliminary to the conquest of that kingdom, of which he had heard on Balboa's expedition (p. 284), in accordance with an agreement made by Pizarro, Diego de Almagro, and Hernando de Luque. Repulse of Pizarro and Almagro.

1525. Voyage of Estevan Gomez, a Spaniard, along the east coast of

North America, 34° N. to 44° N.

1526. Voyage of Sebastian Cabot in the service of Spain. Discovery of the Rio de la Plata, Parana, Paraguay, Uruguay. The English had taken but little part in the discoveries since the time of Cabot, although traces enough of intercourse remain to show that the New World was not entirely neglected.

1527. Voyage of John Rut, who coasted north to 53° N. and returned by way of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and the coast of Maine

(Norumbega).

1528. Unsuccessful expedition of Pamphilo de Narvaez to Florida, under a grant of all the country between Cape Florida and the River of Palms. After visiting Apalache (June 5) Narvaez sailed westward and was lost in a storm (Nov.). Of the survivors, four, one of whom was Cabeça de Vaca, made their way by land to the Spanish possessions in Mexico (1536).

1528. Settlement of Germans at Caro, between St. Martha and Maracapana; presented to the family of Welser by Charles V.

1531-1532. Conquest of Peru by Pizarro.

The undertaking was favored by a civil war which was raging

at the time in the empire of the Incas. Foundation of St. Michael on the Piuro in Peru. Capture of the Inca, Atahuallpa, before his army (Nov. 16), who, after the extortion of an immense ransom, was put to death (1533). March of Alvarado from Puerto Viego to Quito. Occupation of Lima, the capital of the Incas (1534). Feuds between the Spanish leaders. Almagro defeated (1538) and executed by Pizzaro. The latter was afterwards killed, with his brother. The Spanish crown assumed the administration of the country (1548).

1534. First voyage of Jacques Cartier, a French sailor, from St. Malo. Discovery of the west coast of Newfoundland (May 10), Prince Edward's Island, Miramichi Bay, Anticosti, coast

to 50° N.

1535. May-1536. July. Second voyage of Cartier; discovery of the Bay of St. Lawrence, River of St. Lawrence (Hochelaga), as far as the site of Montreal. Information received about the great lakes.

Foundation of the modern city of Lima. Unsuccessful invasion of Chili by Almagro.

1537. Discovery of Lower California by Cortez.

1538. The west coast of South America explored to 40° S. by Valdivia.

1539, May-1543, Sept. Expedition of Ferdinando de Soto, governor of Cuba, for the conquest of Florida, with nine vessels and over 900 men. After toilsome marches in Florida, with no result but disappointment, De Soto led his men westward to the Mississippi, where he died (at the juncture of this stream and the Guacoya) and was buried in the stream. The remains of the expedition (311 men) reached Panuco Sept. 10, 1543. According to Dr. Kohl, De Soto reached 30° 40′ N. in Georgia, and explored the Mississippi to the Ohio (38° N.)

1539-1540. Alonzo de Camargo coasted from the Straits of Magellan to Peru, completing the exploration of the coast of South

America.

1540. Expedition of Alarçon in search of the passage to the Indies (Straits of Anian). Exploration of the coast of California to 36° N. Voyage up the Rio Colorado. Lower California, previously held to be an island, was thus shown to be a peninsula. Early maps so represent it; afterwards the conviction that it was an island spread anew and late into the next century the

best maps of America contained this error.

1540-1542. Expedition of Francisco Vasquez Coronado, sent out by the Spanish viceroy, Mendoza, in search of the seven cities of Cibola, concerning whose wealth the Spaniards had derived extravagant ideas from the reports of the Indians. Coronado reached Zuñi May 11. Discovery of the Moqui cañon of the Colorado. Reports of a city, Quivira. Coronado wintered at Zuñi among the Pueblo Indians. In 1541 he marched northeast to 40° N. and returned to Mexico (bisons).

1540. Expedition of Cartier to the St. Lawrence, with five ships. Roberval (Jean François de la Roche, lord of Roberval), appointed governor of Canada and Hochelaga and all countries

- north of 40° N. (New France), failed to take part in this voyage. Cartier founded the fortress of *Charlesburg* and explored the St. Lawrence.
- 1541. Gonzalo Pizarro, governor of Quito, crossed the Andes and explored the river Napo for 200 leagues: his subordinate, Francisco Orellana sailed down the Napo to the Amazon, and down that river to the sea (Aug. 6). Orellana returned in 1543 to conquer the country, but died in the search for the Napo.
- 1542. Roberval reached Newfoundland, where he met Cartier, who, against the will of the governor, returned to France. Roberval built a fort not far above the island of Orleans, but the enterprise was soon abandoned.
 - Rodriguez de Cabrillo, sent in search of the passage to the Indies, discovered Cape Mendocino in 42° N. on the west of North America, and explored as far as 44° N.
- 1545. Mines of Potosi claimed for Spain.
- 1547. Pedro de Gasca, president of Peru. Organization and pacification of the country.
- 1547. Bishopric of Paraguay established.
- 1548. First act of the English Parliament relating to America (2 Edw. VI.: regulation of the fisheries at Newfoundland).
- Protestant settlement in America. The chevalier Nicolaus Durand de Villegagnon led two ships to Brazil, and founded a colony at the Bay of Rio de Janeiro. Geneva sent fourteen missionaries to the colony. Villegagnon now joined the Catholic church, and his defection ruined the colony; many settlers returned to France (1557), some of the rest were murdered by the Portuguese (1558), and in 1560 the colony was entirely broken up by the Portuguese government. André Thevet, who accompanied Villegagnon, on his return to France coasted along the east coast of North America to the Bacallaos (Newfoundland), and on his return described his voyage in a gossipy, untrustworthy book.
- 1558. Last Spanish expedition to Carolana; no settlement made.
- 1560-1561. Expedition of *Pedro de Urana* in search of the empire of the *Ormaguas*, and of the scoundrel *Lope de Aguirre* in search of *El Dorado* in South America.
- 1562. Second attempt of admiral de Coligny to establish a Huguenot colony in America. Expedition of *Jean Ribault*. Erection of *Charles Fort* near Port Royal in South Carolina. The settlement was soon abandoned.
- 1563. First slave voyage made by the English to America. John Hawkins with three ships brought 300 negroes to the West Indies.
- 1564. Third attempt of Coligny to establish a Huguenot Colony in America. René Laudonnière, sent to carry aid to Ribault's colony, finding the settlers gone built Fort Carolina on the St. John's river in Florida (June). Arrival of Ribault (1565, Aug. 28).

- 1565, Sept. 20. Storm of Fort Carolina by the Spaniards under Menendez de Aviles; massacre of the garrison ("I do this not as to Frenchmen, but as to Lutherans"). Ribault put to sea, but was captured and slain with all his company. Construction of three Spanish forts on the St. John's (Castle of St. Augustine).
- 1568. Expedition of Dominique de Gourges to avenge the mas-April. sacre of the French at Fort Carolina. Capture and destruction of the Spanish forts, massacre of the garrison ("I do this not as to Spaniards, nor as to mariners, but as to traitors, robbers and murderers").

1572. First voyage of Francis Drake to South America. Attack upon Nombre de Dios and Darien.

1576. First voyage of Martin Frobisher in search of a northwest June-Aug. passage. Discovery of Frobisher's Strait and Meta Incognita on the north coast of North America (60°). Supposed discovery of gold.

1577, May-Sept. Second voyage of Frobisher.

1578, May-Sept. Third voyage of Frobisher.

- 1577, Dec. 13-1580, Nov. 3. Voyage of Francis Drake around the world. Touching the west coast of North America he discovered "Drake's Port," and claimed the country between 38° N. and 42° N. for England under the name of New Albion.
- 1578. Unsuccessful voyage of discovery of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, under a patent from queen Elizabeth.

1580. Foundation of Santa Fé in New Mexico, by De Espejio.

1583. Second voyage of Sir Humphrey Gilbert. Landing at Newfoundland he took formal possession of the island for England in right of the discovery of the Cabots. On the return voyage Sir Humphrey Gilbert was lost in a storm.

1584. Sir Walter Raleigh having secured a transfer to himself of the patent granted to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, his half-brother, dispatched Amadas and Barlow to explore the coast of North America north of the Spanish settlements. They lauded on

- July 13. the island of *Wocokon* and took possession of the country for the queen. Exploration of *Roanoke*. On their return the explorers gave glowing accounts of the country, which received the name of Virginia.
- sent to Roanoke Island; suffering from destitution they were removed in 1586 by Drake. Grenville arriving with supplies immediately after their departure left fifteen sailors to hold possession; they had, however, all disappeared before the arrival (1587) of 117 new colonists. "Borough of Raleigh in Virginia," governor, John White. Virginia Dare, first English child born in America. This colony met an unknown fate. White returned to Virginia in 1590, but could not find the colony. In 1589 Raleigh sold his patent.

 1585. First voyage of John Davis to the north. Exploration of

1585. First voyage of John Davis to the north. Exploration of Davis Straits to 66° 40′. Discovery of Gilbert Sound and Cumberland Straits.

1586. Naval expedition of Sir Francis Drake to the Spanish West Indies. Sack of St. Domingo and Carthagena. Rescue of the colony of Virginia.

1587. Third voyage of John Davis (the second was to Labrador in 1586). He reached 72° 12′ N. and discovered the Cumberland Islands, London Coast, Lumley's Inlet (Frobisher's Strait 1).

1592. Alleged discovery of the strait of Juan de la Fuca on the west coast of North America in 48° N. by Apostolos Valerianos, a Greek, who had been in the service of Spain under the name of Juan de la Fuca. Peschel (Gesch. d. Erdhunde, I. 273) regards the story as apocryphal.

1595. Expedition of Sir Walter Raleigh to Guiana. Capture of the city of St. James. Search for El Dorado. Voyage up

the Orinoco for 400 miles.

1595. Expedition of *Drake* and *Hawkins* to the West Indies. Death of Hawkins. Drake died 1596.

1598. The Marquis de la Roche obtained from Henry IV. of France a commission to conquer Canada. He left forty convicts on the Isle of Sable, made some explorations in Acadia, and returned to France. After his death his patent was granted to Chauvin, who made two successful voyages to Tadoussac, and

left some people there (1600).

1602. Voyage of Bartholemew Gosnold from Falmouth. Taking due westerly course he first saw land in 42° N. Discovery of a cape which Gosnold named Cape Cod (May 15). Discovery of Buzzard's Bay (called Gosnold's Hope). Erection of a fort and storehouse on Cuttyhunk (called by Gosnold Elizabeth Island, a name now applied to the whole chain of islands of which this is the most westerly). Return of the whole party to England.

1603. Voyage of Martin Pring from Bristol along the coast of Maine

from the Penobscot River to the Bay of Massachusetts.

1603. Voyage of Samuel Champlain, a Frenchman, from Brouage, up the St. Lawrence.

1604. Foundation of Port Royal (the present *Annapolis*) in Nova Scotia by the French.

In 1603 Pierre du Gast, Sieur de Monts, obtained from Henry IV. of France a grant of all lands in North America from 40° N. to 46° N. (from Pennsylvania to New Brunswick), under the name of Acadia. (This name was afterwards restricted to the present Nova Scotia, and the French possessions in North America were designated generally as New France.) In 1604 De Monts associated himself with M. Poutrincourt and sailed for America with two vessels. Foundation of Port Royal by Poutrincourt. Discovery of the St. John River by Champlain, De Monts' pilot. De Monts built a fort at St. Croix, but in the following year joined Poutrincourt at Port Royal.

¹ See Peschel, Gesch. d. Erdhunde, I. 299, for a discussion of the errors of the early Arctic navigators.

1605. Voyage of George Weymouth (who had made a trip to Labrador in 1593) to the North American coast in about 41° 30′ N.

Over a hundred years had elapsed since the discovery of America, and thus far South America and Central America had alone been the scene of active and successful colonization. In North America, a few scattered Spanish settlements in the south and one French colony in the north were the only representatives of European civilization. The next few years witnessed a mighty change. England, which for all her voyages had not a foot of land in America, entered on a course of settlement and conquest which ultimately gave her the fairest portion of the New World.

English, Dutch, and Swedish Colonies in North America (1606–1638).

A. English Colonies.

1606. April 10. The patent of Sir Walter Raleigh becoming void by his attainder for treason, James I. issued a patent dividing Virginia into two parts: 1. The First Colony, embracing the country from 34° N. to 38° N. with the right to settle as far as 41° N. if they were the first to found their colony: this southern colony was granted to a number of gentlemen, residing principally in London (Richard Hakluyt), and known as the London Company. Second Colony, embracing the country between 41° N. and 45° N. with the right of settling as far as 38° N. if they were the first to establish their colony; this northern colony was granted to gentlemen residing chiefly in Bristol, Plymouth, etc., and hence known as the Plymouth Company. Each company was to become owner of the land for fifty miles on each side of the first settlement, and one hundred miles inland. The nearest settlements of the two colonies should be one hundred miles apart. The government of each colony was vested in a council resident in England and nominated by the king; the local government was intrusted to a council resident in America also nominated by the king, and to conform to his Imports from England free of duty for seven years; freedom of trade with other nations, the duties for twenty-seven ' years to go to the colonies. Right of coinage and of self-defense. Establishment of a Council of Virginia in England for the superintendence of both colonies.

Colony of South Virginia.

1607, May 13. Foundation of Jamestown in the southern colony by a band of one hundred colonists sent out under Christopher Newport. It included Bartholomew Gosnold and John Smith. Dissension in the council. Explorations by John Smith who was captured by the Indians, and presented to the chief, Powhatan, but in the end released (story of the rescue of Smith by Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan¹). In 1607

¹ This story has been relegated to the realm of fable, on the insufficient ground that no mention of it appears in Smith's first account of his captivity.

Smith explored the Chesapeake. During the first years the colony suffered severely from extremes of heat and cold, as well as from dissensions and bad provision by the company. Laborers were scarce, the colonists being either gentlemen or criminals.

1609. Second charter of the company of South Virginia, increase of privileges and of members. Lord Delaware (Thomas West) appointed governor for life. Smith returned to England.

1610. The distress in the colony was so great (The Starving Time) that it was on the point of abandonment when Lord Dela-

ware arrived with supplies.

1611. Delaware returning to England, Sir Thomas Gates was sent out as deputy governor.

1612. Third charter of the company of South Virginia. Inclusion

of the Bermudas within their possessions.

1613. The French having established the colony of St. Saviour at Mount Desert on the coast of Maine, the governor of South Virginia sent Samuel Argal to dispossess them. Argal destroyed St. Saviour and razed Port Royal. On his return he received the submission of the Dutch settlement at Hudson's River (?)

1614. Sir Thomas Dale deputy governor of South Virginia.

1615. Land, which had hitherto been held of the company by farmers as tenants-at-will, was now made private property; fifty acres being now granted to every colonist and his heirs.

1617. Samuel Argal succeeded Sir George Yeardley as deputy governor of South Virginia; reduced state of the colony. In the

1618. following year Lord Delaware sailed with supplies and colonists for Virginia, but died on the voyage. Rigorous government of Argal. At this time there were 600 persons and 300 cattle in the colony; the only exports were tobacco and sassafras, and the London company was indebted £5.000.

fras, and the London company was indebted £5,000.

1619. First General Assembly in South Virginia convoked (June 19) by Sir George Yeardley, governor general, consisting of the freemen (burgesses) of the colony, representing eleven corporations or plantations. The burgesses sat in the same house with the council and governor.

Introduction of negro slaves (20) into Virginia by a Dutch

vessel.

1620. The colony, numbering 1000 persons, received an accession of 1200 new settlers. Introduction of women who were sold as wives to the colonists for from 100 to 150 pounds of tobacco.

Free trade with the colony established.

1621. Sir Francis Wyatt, governor, brought over a new constitution for the colony, whereby its government was vested in a governor, a council of state, and a general assembly, to which two burgesses were to be chosen by every town, hundred, and plantation. The governor had the veto power, and every enactment of the colonial legislature required the ratification of the company in England to become binding. All ordinances of the company were without effect unless accepted by the assembly.

- 1622. March 22. Massacre of 347 colonists by the Indians.
- 1624. Commission of inquiry into the affairs of Virginia appointed by the crown. In spite of the answer of the general assembly wherein the rights of the people were defined, the court of king's bench in England, before which the cause was tried, decided against the company. The charter was annulled. The company had sent out more than 9000 persons to the colony, of whom not more than 2000 now remained. Sir Francis Wyatt was appointed governor, with a council of eleven members, also appointed by the king. This plan of government was continued by Charles I. who announced that the colony should immediately depend upon the crown, which should appoint the governor and council and issue patents and legal processes. Commercial restrictions.

1630. Grant of Carolana (the region south of the Virginia colony between 31° N. and 36° N., from the Atlantic to New Mexico) to Sir Robert Heath, being the first instance of a proprietary grant by the crown. No settlement seems to have been made, on which account the grant was subsequently declared void, and a part of the territory granted out under the name of Carolina, a proceeding which resulted in much ill-feeling.

- 1632. Grant of Maryland (the region between the *Potomac* and the latitude of *Philadelphia*) to *Cecil Calvert*, lord Baltimore, son of Sir George Calvert, to whom the grant was originally made, but who died before putting it to use. The grant was met by a protest from Virginia which was of no avail. In
- 1634, the first colony reached Maryland; being about two hundred persons. Grant of fifty acres of land to each emigrant as private property. The Calverts being Roman Catholics, no mention of religious establishment appeared in the charter beyond the recognition of Christianity as established by English common law.

The proprietary governor, holding directly of the crown, was subject to no corporation or company, appointed the deputy governor and the executive officers, regulated the legislation, and received the taxes. The general assembly of the colonists possessed an advisatory power, and the right of expressing non-approval.

1636. Grant of New Albion (including New Jersey) from the vice-roy of Ireland to Sir Edward Plowden. This New Albion, which was not settled, must not be confounded with the tract of like name discovered by Drake on the western coast of America (p. 289).

The Plymouth Company.

Immediately upon the receipt of the charter the company had dispatched two explorers to the region of their grant (Challons, Hanam), and in

1607, George Popham and Raleigh Gilbert led one hundred colonists

to the northern colony. They built Fort St. George on the island of Monahigon, at the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine (Aug. 11). The death of George Popham and of Sir John Popham in England (1608) so disheartened the colonists that they returned to England. No further attempts at settlement being made for some time, the French (who had also a claim to these regions (see 1604) planted several colonies within the territory of the Plymouth Company.

1614. Exploration of the coast of the northern colony by John Smith from Penobscot to Cape Cod. On his return he wrote an account of his voyage and published a map of the district explored, to which the name of New England was given. Trouble with the Indians, springing from the action of Thomas Hunt, who carried off twenty-seven natives to the West Indies for slaves, discouraged settlement.

After the frustration of an attempt at colonization by Smith in 1515 through adverse circumstances, the company itself made no more attempts at settlements, and the colonies that grew up in its territories were founded by companies or individuals under its charter but independent of its action. One of the most important settlements, indeed, was made without any authority from the company. In 1620 the company was reorganized as the Council of Plymouth for New England with territory from Philadelphia to Chaleur Bay (40° N. to 48° N.)

1620. Settlement of Plymouth in New England by English separatists from Holland.

This religious sect, a sort of left wing of the larger body of Puritans, had left England in 1607-8 on account of the intolerance with which they were treated, and settled at Leyden in Holland (1609) to the number of 1000 or more, under their minister, John Rob-After several attempts to secure a patent from the London company (South Virginia), and a promise of toleration from the king, they succeeded in the former endeavor in 1619, but not in the Procuring two ships, the Speedwell and the Mayflower, a number of the congregation set sail Aug 5, from Southampton (having left Leyden in July) for the vicinity of Hudson's River. Twice driven back by stress of weather the Pilgrims (a name applied much earlier to the whole body in Holland) finally left Plymouth in the Mayflower, Sept. 6. On Nov. 9 they sighted Cape Cod, but instead of running southward they were induced by fear of shoal water, by the late season, and perhaps by the cunning of the shipmaster, to anchor at the Cape. On Nov. 11, the company signed a contract of government (they being beyond the limits of the London Company), and elected John Carver governor. For some weeks they explored the coast, landing at various places. (Birth of Peregrine White, the first European child born in New England). Toward the close of December they fixed on the site of Plymouth, and landing, began the erection of a house and portioned out land among the settlers (nineteen families, 102 individuals).¹

¹ It is difficult to decide on the actual day of landing, as larger and smaller

1621. Intercourse of the colonists (Capt. Miles Standish) with the Indians (Samoset, Massasoit, chief of the Indians in that vicinity). Upon the death of Carver, William Bradford was elected governor. Arrival of a new charter from the Plymouth Company, but made out in the name of some London merchants, with whom the Pilgrims had had connection when in Holland. Over fifty of the original settlers died this year. Trouble with the Indians 1621–23.

Meantime the territory of the Plymouth Company was being parceled out among various adventurers by often conflicting grants. In 1621 Sir William Alexander obtained a patent for the whole of Acadia, under the name of Nova Scotia, from the crown of Scotland (confirmed, 1625). The region from Salem River to the Merrimac was granted to John Mason and called Mariana. In 1622 Sir Fernando Gorges and John Mason obtained a grant of all lands between the Merrimac and the Kennebec, which region was called at first Laconia, afterwards, Maine. In 1622 settlements were made on the site of the present Dover (Cochecho) and Portsmouth. In 1624 a few Puritans from England settled at Cape Ann; the colony afterwards removed to Naumkeag (Roger Conant, 1626). In 1625 Captain Wollaston settled at Mount Wollaston, near Boston.

- 1623. The Plymouth Company sent out Francis West as "Admiral of New England," Robert Gorges as "Governor-General," and William Morrell as "Superintendent of Churches" but nothing came of this assertion of authority.
- 1627. The colony at Plymouth succeeded in buying off the London merchants in whose name their charter had been issued. Growth of the colony; friendly intercourse with the Dutch.
- 1628. The Plymouth Company issued a grant of the land between three miles south of the Charles River, and three miles north of the Merrimac, reaching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to a company which sent out John Endicott with a body of colonists who joined the others at Naumkeag. In 1629 the name of the colony was changed to Salem.

The colony at Plymouth obtained a grant of Kennebec.

Suppression of the settlement at Wollaston ("Merry Mount") by Endicott. Morton, who after Wollaston's departure had ruled the colony and had sold fire arms to the Indians, was seized by Standish from Plymouth and sent to England.

1629. Establishment of the colony of Massachusetts Bay. ("The Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England") by a charter issued directly by the crown to the company, enlarged by new associates, which had settled Salem. The company was permitted to elect a governor, deputy governor and eighteen assistants yearly, and to make laws not repugnant to those of England. The first governor, Matthew Cradock, was succeeded by

bands were coming and going from the ship for several days. The conventional date, Dec. 11, O.S., or Dec. 21 (22), N.S., has been much disputed. See Gay, "When did the Pilgrim Fathers land at Plymouth?" — Atlantic Monthly, November, 1881, p. 612.

John Endicott. A number of influential men becoming interested in the enterprise, the governing council or court of the company in England ("The Governor and Council of London's Plantation in Massachusetts Bay in New England") consented that the charter and government should be transferred to the colony (Aug. 29), under which agreement John Winthrop was chosen governor, and in 1630 sailed for New England with a large number of settlers, who landed at Charlestown, where an offshoot from the Salem colony was already established. Here a church was founded and two courts of assistants held.

- 1629. Mason and Gorges dissolving their connection, a new grant was made to each, Mason receiving the territory between the Merrimac and the Piscataqua, a region afterwards called New Hampshire. Gorges received the region between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec, under the name of New Somersetshire.
- 1630. Third and last patent of the Plymouth colony, whereby it was assigned the district between the Cohasset River and the Narraganset, extending westward to the limits of Pokenakut or Sowamset. "The colonists were allowed to make orders, ordinances, and constitutions, for the ordering, disposing, and governing their persons, and distributing the lands within the limits of the patent."
- 1630. Settlement of Boston, on the peninsula called Shawmut by the Indians, but Trimountain by the English, and then inhabited by an episcopal minister, William Blackstone. On Sept. 7, the court at Charlestown changed the name of Trimountain to Boston. First general court of Massachusetts held at Boston, Oct. 19. It was enacted that the freemen should elect the assistants, who were to choose out of their own number the governor, but the next court decreed that the governor, deputy governor, and assistants should be elected directly by the freemen. Only church-members were freemen, so that the freemen formed a minority of the population. In 1631 a fortified town was begun on the Charles and called Newtown (afterwards Cambridge).

Colony of Connecticut.

The Dutch (Adrian Block, 1614) were the first to explore the coast of Connecticut and the river of that name, when they built a fort near Hartford. In 1630 the council of Plymouth granted to the earl of Warwick the land 120 miles S. E. from the Narraganset River, and extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In 1631 Warwick transferred this grant to the viscount Say and Seal, lord Brook, and others. In 1633 the colonies of Plymouth and Boston conferred on the question of settling the Connecticut valley; as the Massachusetts colony declined the enterprise a company was sent out from

The "Deed from four Indian sagamores to John Wheelwright and others, 1629," long accepted as the foundation of the history of New Hampshire, is now generally accounted a forgery. Holmes, Annals, I. 199, note 2. Winthrop, Journal, ed. by Savage. Fogg, Gazeteer of N. H.

Plymouth, which disregarded the prohibition of the Dutch and set up a house on the Connecticut. The rival claims of the Dutch and

English were discussed without effect by the colonies.

1634. The growth of the colony of Massachusetts Bay preventing the attendance of all freemen at the general court, it was enacted that whereas four courts should be held in a year, the whole body of freemen should be present at that court only in which the elections were held; at the other courts the freemen in the towns should send deputies.

1635. Surrender of the Charter of the Council of Plymouth to the crown in consequence of the hostility of the govern-

ment and church.

- 1635. Foundation of the Connecticut colony by emigrants from Massachusetts (Windsor, Wethersfield, Hartford), and by John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts, who built a fort at Saybrook, under commission from the proprietors. In 1636 a large part of the inhabitants of Newtown (Cambridge) migrated to Connecticut and settled at Hartford.
- 1636. A code of laws (the General Fundamentals) established at Plymouth.
- 1636. Foundation of Providence by Roger Williams, who had been expelled from Salem in 1634 for holding heretical doctrines subversive of church and state.

At this time there were 20 towns in the Massachusetts Bay colony, and some 800 persons in Connecticut.

1637. War of Connecticut (first general court at Hartford) and Massachusetts against the unruly tribe of Pequots in Connecticut. Defeat of the Indians.

1638. Foundation of the colony of Rhode Island by John Clark and others, who left Massachusetts on account of religious differences. Purchase of the island of Aquedneck (afterwards Isle of Rhodes) from the Indians.

In this year another attempt was made by quo warranto process to rescind the charter of Massachusetts, but it failed of

success.

In consequence of a bequest of £779 17s. 2d. from John Harvard, of Charlestown, the public school which the colony had enacted in the previous year should be established at Newtown received the name of Harvard College, while the name of

the town was changed to Cambridge.

- 1639. Windsor, Hartford, Wethersfield, on the Connecticut, united to form a separate government. The constitution (Jan. 14) placed the executive, legislative, and judicial powers in the general assembly, composed of the deputies of the towns in the ratio of numbers of freemen, meeting twice a year. All could vote who had taken the oath of allegiance to the constitution.
 - The grant of Sir Ferdinando Gorges was confirmed to him by the crown under the title of the Province of Maine.
 - A general assembly of the deputies of the towns in Plymouth colony met for the first time (June 4).

1641. The Body of Liberties, a code of 100 laws established by the general court of the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

1643. Creation of the United Colonies of New England by the alliance of Connecticut, New Haven, Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay (May 19) for mutual defense.

B. Dutch Settlements.

1609. Henry Hudson, an Englishman in Dutch service, coasted from Newfoundland to the Chesapeake, and entered Hudson's

River. Trading voyages of the Dutch (1610-1613).

1613. Establishment of a Dutch trading post on the island of Manhattan at the mouth of the Hudson, or North River (so called to distinguish it from the South River, or Delaware). Alleged submission of the Dutch to Argal (p. 292).

1614. Establishment of the United New Netherland Company in Holland with a grant in America of territory from 40° N. to 45° N. Fort built at Manhattan, another, Fort Orange, near the present Albany (1615). Voyage of Adrian Block through Long Island sound (Block Island).

1621. Creation of the Dutch West India Company to take the place of the New Netherland Company whose charter had expired.

1626. Peter Minuit, having purchased Manhattan Island for twenty-four dollars, founded the settlement of New Amsterdam.

Settlements were made under the charter of the company in Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, as well as in New York. Many of these were founded under an enactment of the company which gave the title of patroon to any person who should bring over a certain number of colonists under certain conditions; the title represented a certain relation of suzerainty between the founder and the colonists.

The council for New England had opposed what it regarded as the Dutch invasion in 1620–21, and the remonstrances of the English grew stronger after the foundation of New Amsterdam (1627, 1632). The settlement of Connecticut from New England (1632–1638) was opposed by the Dutch in vain, and the entire region was wrested from them. (Protest of Kieft, governor of New Netherlands against the foundation of New Haven.) The Dutch drove a flourishing trade with the Five Nations of the Iroquois in central New York, whom they supplied with firearms.

C. Swedish Settlements.

1638. Foundation of Fort Christiana on the Delaware by a colony of Swedes and Finns. The colony was called New Sweden, and was followed by other settlements. The Dutch considered this an invasion of their rights, but the disputes that followed led to no result until 1655, when New Sweden was annexed to New Netherlands.

D. New France and the Arctic Region.

It must be remembered that France claimed, by right of the discoveries of Verrazano, the whole of North America north of Spanish Florida and Mexico, although settlements had been made only in Nova Scotia and on the St. Lawrence, nothing having come of the projected settlement between Spanish Florida and English Virginia. It was with the French in the North that the English settlers had to deal; it was to Canada that they applied the name of New France, as that of Acadia was restricted to Nova Scotia. From the north the French afterwards made the great discoveries in the west which gave them new claims to the largest part of America.

1606. An attempted settlement on Cape Cod repulsed by the Indians.

1608. Foundation of Quebec (July 3) by a colony sent out by *De Monts*, under Champlain.

1609. Champlain, joining a war party of the Algonquins against the

Iroquois, discovered Lake Champlain.

1610. Discovery of Hudson's Bay by Henry Hudson, who was searching for the northwest passage, in the service of an English company. On the return the crew mutinied and Hudson was put to sea in a small boat, and not heard of again.

1610. English colony sent to Newfoundland 46° N. to 52° N. (Con-

ception Bay).

1612. Voyage of Thomas Button in search of the Northwest Passage.

Discovery of New South Wales and New North Wales, Button's

Bay.

1613. Madame de Guercheville, having secured the surrender of De Monts' patent, and the issue of a new patent from the crown for all New France between Florida and the St. Lawrence (except Port Royal), sent Saussage with two Jesuits, who took possession of Nova Scotia and founded a colony (St. Saviour) on Mt. Desert, which was immediately broken up by Argal's expedition from Virginia. All the French settlements in Acadia were also destroyed.

1615. Expedition of Champlain to Lake Huron.

- 1616. Voyage of Bylot and Baffin in search of the Northwest Passage. Discovery of Wolstenholme's Sound, Lancaster Sound, Baffin's Bay (78° N.).
- 1621. Grant of Acadia under the name of Nova Scotia, to Sir William Alexander by the crown of Scotland. An attempt at settlement was unsuccessful and the French continued in possession. Grant of a part of Newfoundland to Sir George Calvert (Lord Baltimore) who resided there until 1631.

1627. Transfer of the colony of Quebec to the company of a hundred associates under Cardinal Richelieu.

1629. Conquest of Quebec by Louis and Thomas Kirk, under a commission from Charles I. for the conquest of New France. An attack of David Kirk in 1628 had been repulsed by Champlain.

1630. St. Estienne of La Tour, a Huguenot, bought from Sir William Hamilton his patent for Nova Scotia, on condition that the

colony should remain subject to Scotland.

1631. Voyages of Fox and James in search of a Northwest Passage. Fox explored the west coast of Hudson Bay from 65° 30' to 55°10' in vain, but discovered Fox's Channel and reached Cape Peregrine. James discovered James Bay, where he passed a terrible winter.

1632. Treaty of St. Germain between France and England. Cession of New France, Acadia, and Canada to France.

1635. Seizure of the trading post established at *Penobscot* by the Plymouth colonists by the French. Plymouth sent a vessel against the French, but failed to recover the place. Death of *Champlain*.

1641. Maisonneuve appointed governor of Montreal; in 1642 he brought over several families and took possession of the

island.

§ 3. GERMANY TO THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR. THE REFORMATION.

1493-1514. Maximilian I.,

who at first took the title of "Roman Emperor elect."

ber (Reichskammergericht), first at Frankfort, then at Speier, after 1689 at Wetzlar. At the diet of Cologne (1512), establishment of ten circles for the better maintenance of the public peace (Landfriedenskreise): Circle of: 1. Austria; 2. Bavaria; 3. Swabia; 4. Franconia; 5. the Upper Rhine (Lorraine, Hesse, etc.); 6. the Lower Rhine, or the Electorates (Mainz, Trier, Cologne); 7. Burgundy (1556, ceded to the Spanish line of Hapsburg); 8. Westphalia; 9. Lower Saxony (Brunswick, Lüneburg, Lauenburg, Holstein, Mecklenburg, etc.); 10. Upper Saxony (Saxony, Brandenburg, Pommerania, etc.). In all comprising 240 estates of the empire, exclusive of the imperial knights. Bohemia and the neighboring states, Moravia, Silesia, Lusatia, with Prussia and Switzerland, which was already completely independent, in fact, were not included in the circles.

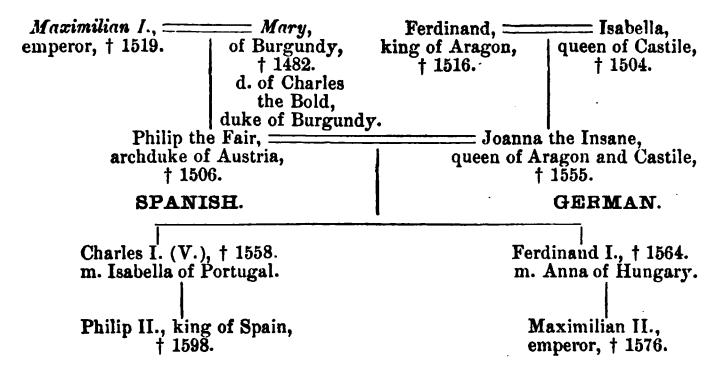
Establishment of the Aulic Council, a court more under the control of the emperor than the Imperial Chamber, and to which a large part

of the work belonging to the latter was gradually diverted.

Maximilian was obliged to invest Louis XII. of France with Milan. 1508. League of Cambray between Maximilian, Louis XII., Pope

Julius II., and Ferdinand the Catholic, against Venice. Maximilian took possession of a part of the territory of the republic, but besieged Padua in vain (1509). The Pope withdrew from the league, and concluded with Venice and Ferdinand the *Holy League* (1511) against France, in which they were finally (1513) joined by Maximilian (p. 319).

The following genealogical table shows the claim of the house of Hapsburg to Spain, and its division into a Spanish and German line.



Maximilian's son Philip married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand (king of Aragon and Naples), and Isabella (queen of Castile), hence heiress of the three kingdoms and the American Colonies. Philip himself inherited from his mother, Mary, the heiress of Burgundy, the Burgundian Lands; from his father, Maximilian, all the possessions of the Hapsburgs (Western Austria on the upper Rhine, Austria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tyrol, etc.). All these lands descended to Charles, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna, the ancestor of the elder, Spanish, line of the Hapsburg house. His younger brother, Ferdinand, ancestor of the younger, German, line of the house of Hapsburg, married Anna, sister of Louis II., last king of Bohemia and Hungary (whose wife was Mary, Ferdinand's sister).

1517. Beginning of the Reformation. Luther.

Martin Luther was born 1483 at Eisleben, son of a miner, became master of arts and instructor 1505; monk in the Augustine monastery at Erfurt; 1507 priest; 1508 professor at Wittenberg; 1510 sent to Rome on business connected with his order; 1512 doctor of theology. On Oct. 31, 1517, he nailed upon the door of the court church at Wittenberg his ninety-five theses against the misuse of absolution or indulgences (especially by the Dominican monk Tetzel). 1518. Beginning of the reformation in Switzerland by Zwingli at

Zürich. Zwingli fell in battle at Kappel 1531.
Summoned to Augsburg by Cardinal de Vio of Gaëta (Cajetanus),
Luther could not be induced to abjure (1518), but appealed to the
Pope.²

Mediation of the papal chamberlain v. Miltitz. After the discussion at Leipzig 1519 (Bodenstein, called Carlstadt against Eck), the latter secured a papal bull against forty-one articles in Luther's writings.

¹ These fortunate marriages of the house of Austria were celebrated in the following couplet:

Bella gerant alii, tu felix Austria, nube! Quæ dat Mars aliis, dat tibi regna Venus.

² De Papa male informato ad Papam melius informandum.

Luther burnt (1520) the papal bull and the canon law; whereupon he was excommunicated. In the mean time the German electors, in spite of the claims of Francis I. of France, had chosen the grandson of Maximilian I. in Spain, Charles I., as emperor.

1519-1556. Charles V.

He came to Germany for the first time in 1520, for the purpose of holding a grand diet at Worms (1521). There Luther defended his doctrines before the emperor, under a safe-conduct. The ban of the empire being pronounced against him, he was carried to the Wartburg by Frederic the Wise, of Saxony, and there protected. The edict of Worms prohibited all new doctrines. Luther's translation of the Bible. Hearing of Carlstadt's misdoings he returned to Wittenberg, and introduced public worship, with the liturgy in German and communion in both kinds, in electoral Saxony and in Hesse (1522). The spread of the Reformation in Germany was favored by the fact that the emperor, after the diet of Worms, had left Germany and was occupied with the war with Francis I.

Franz von Sickingen and Ulrich von Hutten advocated the Reformation. Sickingen stood at the head of an association of nobles directed against the spiritual principalities. He laid siege to Trier (1522) in vain, was besieged in Landstuhl, and fell in battle. Hutten fled the country and died on the island of Ufnau in the Lake of Zurich (1523).

1524-1525. The Peasants' War, in Swabia and Franconia, accompanied with terrible outrages. The Twelve Articles. The peasants defeated at Königshofen on the Tauber and cruelly punished. Anabaptists in Thuringia. Thomas Münzer captured at Frankenhausen and executed.

Reformation in Prussia. Grandmaster Albert of Brandenburg

duke of Prussia under Polish overlordship.

Luther's marriage with Catharine of Bora, formerly a nun. Catechism. Ferdinand of Austria, the emperor's younger brother, educated in Spain, to whom Charles had intrusted since 1522 the government of the Hapsburg lands in Germany, formed an alliance in 1524, at the instigation of the papal legate Campeggio, with the two dukes of Bavaria and the bishop of Southern Germany, in order to oppose the religious changes. To counteract this move the league of Torgau was formed (1626) among the Protestants (John of Saxony, Philip of Hesse, Lüneburg, Magdeburg, Prussia, etc.). They procured an enactment at the diet of Speier, favorable to the new doctrine (1526).

1521-1526. First war of Charles V. with Francis I.

Charles advanced claims to Milan and the duchy of Burgundy. Francis claimed Spanish Navarre and Naples. The French (under Lautrec) were driven from Milan, which was given to Francesco Sforza (1522). The French Connétable, Charles of Bourbon, transferred his allegiance to Charles V. Unfortunate invasion of Italy by the French 1523-24, under Bonnivert. The chevalier Bayard ("sans peur et sans reproche") fell during the retreat. Imperial forces invaded southern France. Francis I. crossed Mt. Cenis, and recaptured Milan.

1525. Battle of Pavia. Francis defeated and captured.

1526. Peace of Madrid. Francis renounced all claim to Milan, Genoa, and Naples, as well as the overlordship of Flanders and Artois, assented to the cession of the duchy of Burgundy, and gave his sons as hostages.

1527-1529. Second war between Charles V. and Francis I., who had declared that the conditions of the peace of Madrid were extorted by force, and hence void. Alliance at Cognac between Francis, the Pope, Venice and Francesco Sforza against the emperor. The imperial army, unpaid and mutinous, took Rome by storm under the constable of Bourbon, who fell in the assault (by the hand of Benvenuto Cellini?); the Pope besieged in the Castle of St. Angelo (1527). The French general, Lautrec, invaded Naples, but the revolt of Genoa (Doria), whose independence Charles V. promised to recognize, and the plague, of which Lautrec himself died, compelled the French to raise the siege of the capital and to retire to France.

1529. Peace of Cambray (Paix des Dames). So called from the fact that it was negotiated by Margaret of Austria, Charles's aunt, and Louise of Savoy, duchess of Angoulême, mother of Francis. Francis paid two million crowns and renounced his claims upon Italy, Flanders and Artois; Charles promised not to press his claims upon Burgundy for the present, and released the French princes.

1529. Second diet at Speier, where, in consequence of the victorious position of the emperor, Ferdinand and the Catholic party took a more decided position. The strict execution of the diet of Worms (p. 302) was resolved upon. The evangelical estates protested against this resolution, whence they were called **Protestants**.

1526-1532. War with the Turks. Louis II., king of Hungary, having fallen in the battle of *Mohacs* (1526), one party chose Ferdinand, Charles's brother, the other John Zapolya. The latter was assisted by the Sultan Soliman (Suleiman), who besieged Vienna in vain (1529).

1530. Charles crowned emperor in Bologna by the Pope. This was the last coronation of a German emperor by the Pope.

1530. Brilliant Diet at Augsburg, the emperor presiding in person. Presentation of the Confession of Augsburg (Confessio Augustana) by Melanchthon (true name Schwarzerd, 1497–1560), the learned friend of Luther. The enactment of the diet commanded the abolition of all innovations.

1531. Schmalkaldic league, agreed upon in 1530, between the ma-Feb. 6. jority of Protestant princes and imperial cities.

Charles caused his brother, Ferdinand, to be elected king of Rome, and crowned at Aachen. The elector of Saxony protested against this proceeding in the name of the Evangelicals. In consequence of the new danger which threatened from the Turks,

1532. Religious Peace of Nuremberg. The Augsburg edict was revoked, and free exercise of their religion permitted the Protestants until the meeting of a new council to be called within a year.

Soliman invaded and ravaged Hungary. Heroic defence of Günz. A great imperial army was sent to the aid of Hungary, and Soliman retired.

1534-1535. Anabaptists in Münster (Johann Bockelsohn, from Leyden).

1534. Philip, landgrave of Hessen, restored the Lutheran duke, Ulrich of Würtemberg, who had been driven out (1519) by the Swabian league of cities. The Emperor had invested Ferdinand with the duchy, but the latter was obliged to agree to a compact, whereby he was to renounce Würtemberg, but should be recognized as king of Rome by the evangelical party.

1535. Charles's expedition against *Tunis* (Chaireddin Barbarossa, the pirate). Tunis conquered; liberation of all Christian slaves.

1536-1538. Third war, between Charles V. and Francis I., about Milan; Francis I. having renewed his claims upon that duchy after the death of Francesco Sforza II., without issue. Charles invaded Provence anew, but fruitlessly. Francis made an inroad into Savoy and Piedmont, and accepted the alliance of Soliman, who pressed Hungary hard, and sent his fleet to ravage the coast of Italy. The war was ended by the

1538. Truce of Nice, which was concluded on the basis of posses-June 18. sion, at the time of its formation, for ten years.

July. Meeting between Charles and Francis at Aigues Mortes.

- 1539-1540. Charles V. crossed France, for the purpose of suppressing a disturbance in Ghent, and was received by Francis with special distinction. Ghent punished by deprivation of its privileges.
- 1540. The Order of Jesuits, founded by *Ignatius Loyola* (1534), approved by Pope Paul III., successfully opposed the spread of the Reformation.
- vin, from Noyon in Picardy; born 1509; Catholic pastor in his eighteenth year, resigned his office; studied law at Orléans and Bourges; came forward as a reformer at Paris in 1532, finding protection from Margaret of Navarre, sister of Francis I. Exiled from France, Calvin went to Basel, published the Institutio christianæ religionis 1535; 1536–1538 in Geneva; 1538–1541 in Strasburg, afterwards head of the state in Geneva, † 1564). From Geneva the Reformation spread to France and Scotland (John Knox).

1541. Charles's unsuccessful expedition against Algiers.

1542. Henry, duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, driven from the country by the Schmalkaldic League.

1542-1544. Fourth war between Charles V. and Francis I., occasioned by the investiture of Charles's son, Philip, with *Milan*. The fact that two secret agents, whom Francis had sent to Soliman, were captured in Milan, and when they resisted, put to death, served as a pretext.

Francis in alliance with Soliman and the duke of Cleve. The allied Turkish and French fleets bombarded and plundered Nice. Charles, in alliance with Henry VIII. of England, conquered the duke of Cleve, and advanced as far as Soissons. Soliman invaded Hungary and Austria.

1544. Peace of Crespy; Francis' second son, the duke of Orleans, Sept. 18. was to marry a princess of the imperial family and receive Milan. He died in 1545, however; Milan continued in the possession of the emperor, who gave it, nominally, to his son Philip, as a fief. Francis gave up his claims to Naples, and the overlordship of Flanders and Artois; Charles renounced his claims to Burgundy.

1545-1563. Council of Trent, not attended by the Protestants. Reforms in the church. Establishment of a number of dogmas of the Catholic church.

1546, Feb. 18. Death of Luther at Eisleben.

Charles V., who, since the peace of Crespy, was unhindered by foreign complications, sought to crush the independence of the estates of the empire in Germany, and to restore the unity of the church, to which he was urged by the Pope, who concluded an alliance with him, and promised money and troops.

1546-1547. Schmalkaldic War.

The leaders of the league of Schmalkalden, John Frederic, elector of Saxony, and Philip, landgrave of Hesse, placed under the ban. Duke Maurice of Saxony concluded a secret alliance with the emperor. Irresolute conduct of the war by the allies in upper Germany. The elector and the landgrave could not be induced by general Schärtlin of Augsburg to make a decisive attack, and finally retired, each to his own land. John Frederic of Saxony reconquered his electorate, which Maurice had occupied. Charles V. first reduced the members of the league in southern Germany (Augsburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, duke of Würtemberg, etc.) to subjection, then went to Saxony, forced the passage of the Elbe, and defeated in the

1547. Battle of Mühlberg, on the Lochau Heath, near Torgau the 24 April. elector of Saxony, captured him, and besieged his capital, Wittenberg. Treaty mediated by Joachim II. of Brandenburg. The electoral dignity and lands given to the Albertine line (duke Maurice). The Ernestine line retained Weimar, Jena, Eisenach, Gotha, etc. The elector was kept in captivity. Philip of Hesse surrendered, and was detained in captivity, although Maurice and Joachim II. of Brandenburg had pledged themselves for his liberation. Interim of Augsburg (1548), not generally accepted by the Protestants. The city of Magdeburg, the centre of the opposition, placed under the ban. Maurice of Saxony, intrusted with the execution of the decree, armed himself in secret against Charles V., and 1552. Surprised the emperor, after the conclusion of the treaty of

Friedewalde (1551) with Henry II. of France, and forced him to liberate his father-in-law, Philip of Hesse, and to conclude the

1552. Convention of Passau. Free exercise of religion for the

Aug. 2. adherents of the confession of Augsburg until the next diet.

Maurice defeated Albert, margrave of Brandenburg-Culmbach at Sievershausen (1553), but was mortally wounded.

1555. Religious Peace of Augsburg. Sept. 25.

The territorial princes and the free cities, who, at this date, acknowledged the confession of Augsburg, received freedom of worship, the right to introduce the reformation within their territories (jus reformandi), and equal rights with the Catholic estates. No agreement reached as regarded the Ecclesiastical Reservation (Reservatum ecclesiasticum) that the spiritual estates (bishops and abbots) who became Protestant should lose their offices and incomes. This peace secured no privileges upon the Reformed religion (Genevan).

1552-1556. War between Charles V. and Henry II., who, as the ally of Maurice, had seized Metz, Toul, and Verdun. Charles besieged Metz, which was successfully defended by Francis of Guise.

The truce of Vaucelles left France, provisionally, in possession of the cities which had been occupied.

1556. Abdication of Charles V. in Brussels (Oct. 25, 1555, and Jan. 15, 1556).

The crown of Spain with the colonies, Naples, Milan, Franche-Comté, and the Netherlands, went to his son Philip; the imperial office and the Hapsburg lands to his brother Ferdinand I. (p. 302, 303). Charles lived in the monastery of St. Just as a private individual, but not as a monk, and died there in 1558.

1556-1564. Ferdinand I.,

husband of Anna, sister of Louis II., king of Bohemia and Hungary, after whose death he was elected king of these countries by their estates. Constant warfare over the latter country, which he was obliged to abandon, in great part, to the Turks. His son,

1564-1576. Maximilian II.,

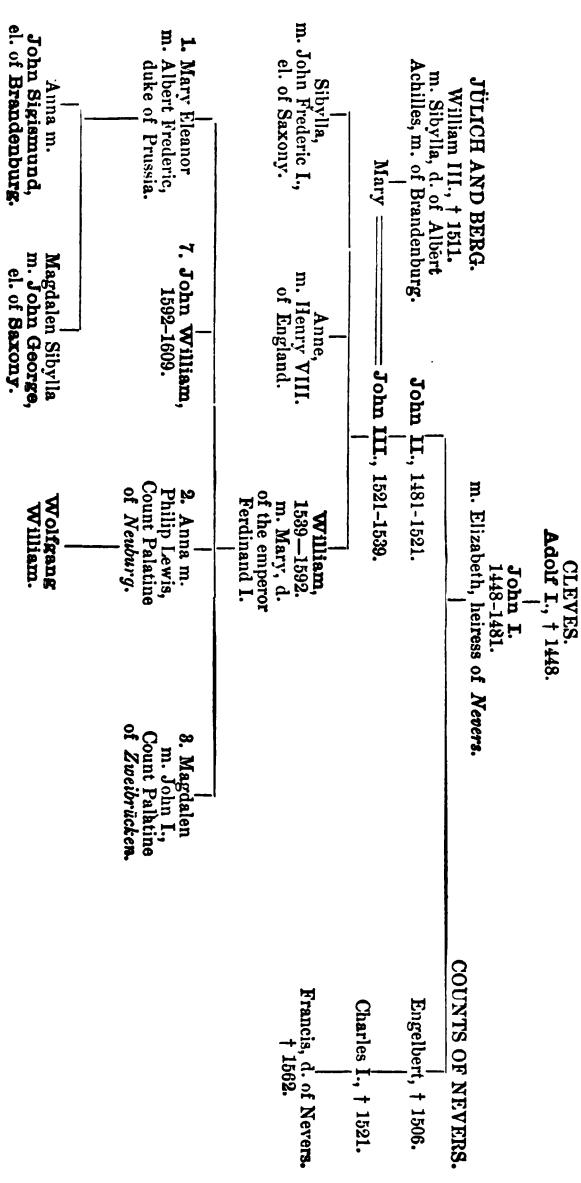
was of a mild disposition and favorably inclined to the Protestants, whom he left undisturbed in the free exercise of their religion. War with Zapolya, prince of Transylvania, and the Turks. Sultan Soliman II. died in camp before Sigeth, which was defended by the heroic Zriny. By the truce with Selim II. (1566) each party retained its possessions. The imperial knight, Grumbach, who had broken the public peace by a feud with the bishop of Würzburg, had plundered the city of Würzburg (1563), and had been protected by John Frederic, duke of Saxony, was placed under the ban, and after the capture of Gotha, cruelly executed (1567). The duke was kept in strict confinement in Austria until his death.

Reaction against Protestantism. Anti-Reformation.

1576-1612. Rudolf II., son of the Emperor Maximilian II., a learned man, an astrologer and astronomer (Kepler, † 1630,

Dukes of Cleves in heavy type.

CLEVES-JÜLICH SUCCESSION.



was appointed imperial mathematician by him), but incapable of governing. New quarrels over the ecclesiastical reservation (p. 306). The imperial city of *Donauvörth*, placed under the ban by the emperor, because a mob had disturbed a Catholic procession, was, in spite of the prohibition of the emperor, retained by *Maximilian of Bavaria*, who had executed the ban (1607). These troubles led to the formation of a

1608. Protestant Union (leader, Frederic IV., elector Palatine), which was opposed by the

1609. Catholic League (leader, Maximilian, duke of Bavaria).

Both princes were of the house of Wittelsbach.

Rudolf, from whom his brother, Matthias, had forced the cession of Hungary, Moravia, and Austria, hoping to conciliate the Bohemians gave them the

1609. Royal Charter (Majestätsbrief), which permitted a free exercise of religion to the three estates of lords, knights, and royal cities.

1609. Beginning of the quarrel about the succession of Jülich-Cleves on the death of John William, duke of Cleves. The elector of Brandenburg and the prince of Neuburg were the principal claimants.

Rudolf, toward the close of his life, was forced by Matthias to abdicate the government of Bohemia.

1612-1619. Matthias,

being childless, and having obtained the renunciation of his brothers, secured for his cousin Ferdinand, duke of Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, who had been educated by the Jesuits in strict Catholicism, the succession in Bohemia and Hungary, in spite of the objections of the Protestant estates.

§ 4. THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

1618-1648.

The Thirty Years' War is generally divided into four periods, which were properly as many different wars. The first two, the Bohemian and the Danish, had a predominant religious character; they developed from the revolt in Bohemia to a general attack by Catholic Europe upon Protestant Europe. The latter two, the Swedish and Swedish-French, were political wars; wars against the power of the house of Hapsburg, and wars of conquest on the part of Sweden and France upon German soil.

1. Period of war in Bohemia and the County Palatine. (1618–1623.)

Occasion: Closing of a Utraquist 1 church in the territory of the abbot of Braunau, and destruction of another in a city of the archbishop of Prague, that is, in the territory of ecclesiastical estates, which

¹ Utraquist, that is, favoring communion in both kinds.

according to the view of the Protestants ought to be regarded as royal estates, in accordance with the Bohemian constitution. The irritation of the Bohemian Protestants (Utraquists) was increased by the transference of the administration of the country to ten governors, seven of whom were Catholics. Meeting of the defensors, and revolt in Prague, headed by count Matthias of Thurn. The governors, Martinitz and Slawata, and the secretary, Fabricius, thrown from a window in the palace of Prague, seventy feet into the ditch, but escaped with their lives (May 23, 1618). Thirty directors appointed by the rebels. The Protestant Union sent count Mansfeld to the aid of the Bohemians. From Silesia and Lusatia came troops under margrave John George of Jägerndorf. The imperial forces were defeated by Mansfeld and count Thurn. The emperor Matthias died 1619.

Count Thurn marched upon Vienna. The Austrian estates, for the most part Protestants, threatened to join the Bohemians, and made rough demands upon Ferdinand, who, by his courage and the arrival of a few troops, was rescued from a dangerous situation. Thurn, who arrived before Vienna shortly afterwards, was soon obliged to retire by an unfavorable turn of the war in Bohemia.² Ferdinand went to Frankfurt, where he was elected emperor by the other six

electors.

1619-1637. Ferdinand II.

Meantime the Bohemians had deposed him from the throne of Bohemia and elected the young Frederic V., elector palatine, the head of the Union and of the German Calvinists, son-in-law of James I., king of England. ("The Winter King").

Count Thurn, for the second time before Vienna, allied with Bethlen Gabor, prince of Transylvania (Nov. 1619). Cold, want, and an

inroad of an imperial partisan in Hungary, caused a retreat.

Ferdinand leagued himself with Maximilian, duke of Bavaria, head of the Catholic League, the friend of his youth, who helped him subdue the Austrian estates, with Spain (Spinola invaded the county palatine; treaty of Ulm, July 3, 1620; neutrality of the Union secured), and with the Lutheran elector of Saxony, who re-subjugated Lusatia and Silesia. Maximilian of Bavaria, with the army of the League commanded by Tilly, marched to Bohemia and joined the imperial general Buquoy. They were victorious in the

1620, Nov. 8. Battle on the White Hill

over the troops of Frederic V., under the command of Christian of Anhalt. Frederic was put under the ban, and his lands confiscated; he himself fled to Holland. Christian of Anhalt and John George of Brandenburg-Jägerndorf, also put under the ban. Subjugation of the Bohemians, destruction of the Royal Charter, execution of the leading rebels, extirpation of Protestantism in Bohemia. Afterwards, violent anti-reformation in Austria, and, with less violence, in Silesia.

Dissolution of the Protestant Union and transfer of the seat of war

¹ Cf. Gindely, Gesch. d. dreissigjähr. Kriegs, vol. i. (1869), chap. 2.
2 Gindely, ii. (1878), chap. 2.

to the palatinate, which was conquered in execution of the ban by Maximilian's general, Tilly (Jan Tzerklas, baron of Tilly, born 1559, in the Walloon Brabant), with the help of Spanish troops under Spinola. Tilly, defeated at Wiesloch by Mansfeld (April, 1622), defeated the margrave of Baden-Durlach at Wimpfen (May), and Christian of Brunswick, brother of the reigning duke and administrator of the bishopric of Halberstadt, at Höchst (June, 1622), and again at Stadtlohn in Westphalia (1623).

1623. Maximilian received the electoral vote belonging to Frederic V. and the Upper Palatinate; Saxony obtained Lusatia, for the present in pledge.

2. Danish Period. Seat of War in Lower Saxony. 1625–1629.

Christian IV., king of Denmark and duke of Holstein, was the head of the Lower Saxon Circle, and the leader of the Protestants.

Albert of Wallenstein (Waldstein, born 1583, in Bohemia, of an utraquist family, but educated in the Catholic faith, 1617 count, 1623 prince of the empire, 1624 duke of *Friedland*) became the imperial commander of an army, recruited by himself, which was to be provisioned by a system of robbery.

Wallenstein defeated Mansfeld at the Bridge of Dessau (1626), pursued him through Silesia to Hungary, where Mansfeld joined Bethlen Gabor. Mansfeld died in Dalmatia (Nov., 1626). Christian

of Brunswick had died in June of the same year.

Tilly defeated Christian VI. at Luther am Barenberge, in Brunswick (Aug., 1626). Tilly and Wallenstein conquered Holstein (1627). Wallenstein alone conquered Schleswig and Jutland, drove the dukes of Mecklenburg from the country, forced the duke of Pommerania to submission, but besieged Stralsund (1628) in vain, the citizens defending themselves heroically for ten weeks.

1629. Peace of Lübeck

May 22. between the emperor and Christian IV. The latter received his lands back, but promised not to interfere in German affairs, and abandoned his allies. The dukes of Mecklenburg put under the ban. Wallenstein invested with their lands.

1629, March 29. Edict of Restitution: 1. Agreeably to the ecclesiastical reservation (p. 306), all ecclesiastical estates which had been confiscated since the convention of Passau should be restored. This affected two archbishoprics: Magdeburg and Bremen; twelve bishoprics: Minden, Verden, Halberstadt, Lübeck, Ratzeburg, Meissen, Merseburg, Naumburg (the latter three were, however, left in the possession of the elector of Saxony), Brandenburg, Havelberg, Lebus and Camin, besides very many (about 120) monasteries and foundations. 2. Only the ahherents of the Augsburg confession were to have free exercise of religion; all other "sects" were to be broken up. Beginning of a merciless execution of the edict by Wallenstein's troops and those of the League.

1630. Electoral Assembly at Regensburg (Ratisbon).

The party of Bavaria and the League was hostile to Wallenstein and took up a position of determined opposition to the too powerful general. An excuse was found in the loud and well founded complaints of all estates of the empire, particularly the Catholics, over the terrible extortion and cruelty practiced by Wallenstein's army. The emperor consented to decree the dismissal of the general and a large part of the army.

1627-1631. War of succession over Mantua by the houses of Nevers and Guastella. The former, supported by France (Richelieu himself took the field) obtained the duchy in the peace of Cheerasco (April 6) although the imperial forces had been victorious and captured Mantua.

3. Swedish Period (1630-1635).

1630. Gustavus II., Adolphus, king of Sweden, landed on July. the coast of Pommerania.

Object and grounds of his interference: protection of the oppressed Protestants; restoration of the dukes of Mecklenburg, his relatives; the rejection of his mediation at the peace of Lübeck; anxiety in

regard to the maritime plans of the emperor.

Political position of Sweden: Finland, Ingermannland, Esthonia, Livonia, belonged to the kingdom of Gustavus; Curland was under Swedish influence. An ambitious monarch might easily dream of the acquisition of Prussia and Pommerania, which would have almost made the Baltic a Swedish sea.

Gustavus concluded a subsidy treaty with France (Richelieu).

Gustavus Adolphus drove the imperial forces from Pommerania and marched up the Oder, where Tilly came against him (1631). The king went to Mecklenberg. Tilly retired to the Elbe, and laid siege to Magdeburg. Gustavus Adolphus captured Frankfurt on the Oder. Negotiations with his brother-in-law, George William, elector of Brandenburg (1619–1640), who was under the influence of Schwarzenberg. Spandau was at last surrendered to him. Negotiations in regard to the surrender of Wittenberg, with Saxony, which endeavored to maintain the position of a third, mediatory, party in the empire, a sort of armed neutrality (diet of princes at Leipzig, 1631), and was with difficulty brought to form an alliance with an enemy of the empire. Meanwhile

1631. Capture of Magdeberg by Tilly. The storm was conducted May 20. by Pappenheim. Terrible massacre and sack of the city by the unbridled soldiery of Tilly, who did what he could to check the outrages. Fire broke out suddenly in many places far removed from one another, and the whole city with the exception of the cathedral was consumed (Not by Tilly's command).¹

Tilly took possession of Halle, Eisleben, Merseburg, and other cities

¹ Probably the fire was set by previous agreement of the more determined portion of the defenders (Falkenberg). Cf. Wittioh, Magdeburg, Gustav Adolf u. Tilly, vol. ii. 1874.

and burned them. John George, elector of Saxony, formed an alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, who crossed the Elbe at Wittenberg. Leipzig occupied by Tilly. The imperial army and that of the Swedes and Saxons, each about 40,000 strong, were face to face.

1631. Battle of Leipzig or Breitenfeld.

Sept. 17. The Saxons were at first put to rout by Tilly, but after a bloody fight Gustavus Adolphus won a brilliant victory.

The Saxons entered Bohemia. Gustavus crossed Thuringia and Franconia to the Rhine by way of Erfurt, Würzburg, Hanau, Frankfort, Darmstadt, crossed the Rhine at Oppenheim, and occupied Mainz. Winter quarters.

Meantime Prague was captured by the Saxons under Arnim (Boytzenburg), a former subordinate of Wallenstein. The emperor held

fruitless negotiations with the Saxons.

At the urgent request of Ferdinand, Wallenstein collected an army, over which he received uncontrolled command. He recaptured Prague, and drove the Saxons from Bohemia. Their eagerness for the war and the Swedish alliance was already chilled.

1632. Gustavus advanced to the Danube by way of Nuremberg to meet Tilly. Conflict at *Rain*, near the confluence of the Lenz and the Danube. Tilly, mortally wounded, died at Ingolstadt. He

was seventy-three years old.

Gustavus went to Augsburg, vainly besieged Maximilian in Ingolstadt, but forced Munich to surrender. Wallenstein summoned to the assistance of Maximilian.

1632. Fortified camp near Nuremberg.

July-Sept. (Burgstall). Gustavus and Wallenstein face to face for eleven weeks. Wallenstein declined battle. Reinforced by the army of Bernhard of Weimar, the Swedes attacked Wallenstein's intrenchments, but were repulsed with heavy loss. Gustavus advanced to the Danube. Wallenstein turned upon Saxony, now defenceless, Arnim having marched through Lusatia to Silesia with the Saxon and Brandenburg troops. Terrible ravages committed by the bands of Wallenstein. At the call of the elector of Saxony, Gustavus hastened back by way of Kitzingen and Schweinfurt, joined Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar in Arnstadt, marched upon Naumburg, and hearing that Wallenstein had dispatched Pappenheim from Leipzig to the Rhine, attacked the imperial forces (18,000 against 20,000 Swedes).

1632. Battle of Lützen. Death of Gustavus Adolphus.¹

Nov. 16. Pappenheim, recalled in haste, took part in the battle with his cavalry, after three o'clock; he was mortally wounded. The victory of the Swedes was completed by Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar.

Bernhard, Gustavus Horn, and Banér took command of the Swedish forces. The conduct of foreign affairs was assumed by the Swedish

¹ The suspicion that the king was murdered by Francis Albert, duke of Lauenburg, is totally unfounded.

chancellor, Axel Oxenstierna (born 1583, councillor since 1609). League of Heilbronn between the circles of Swabia, Franconia, Upper and Lower Rhine, on the one part, and Sweden on the other.

1633. Expedition of Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar to Franconia. He took Bamberg and Höchstädt, drove back the Bavarians under Aldringer, and joined fieldmarshal Horn. Bernhard received from the chancellor the investiture, with the bishoprics of Würzburg and Bamberg, under the name of the Duchy of Franconia, and occupied the upper Palatinate.

Feb. After Wallenstein had tried and punished with death many of his officers in Prague, and had filled their places with new recruits, he marched to Silesia, fought with the Saxon, Brandenburg, and Swedish troops, and negotiated frequently with Arnim. Nego-

tiations with Oxenstierna.

Oct. Capture of a Swedish corps at Steinau-on-the-Oder. Wallenstein invaded Brandenburg, sending raiders as far as Berlin, and then plundered Lusatia.

Nov. Regensburg (Ratisbon) captured by Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar. Wallenstein found himself unable to go to the assistance of the elector of Bavaria, as the emperor urged, and went into winter

quarters in Bohemia.

Growing estrangement between Wallenstein and the imperial court. The Spanish party and the league wished him removed from his command. Wallenstein conducted secret negotiations with the Saxons, the Swedes, the French. He intended to create, with the help of the army (declaration of the generals Piccolomini, Gallas, and Aldringer, at Pilsen), an independent position for himself, whence he could, with the aid of the two north German electors, liberate the emperor from the control of the Spanish party, and, if necessary, compel him to make peace and reorganize the internal affairs of the empire (on the basis of a religious peace?). He had resolved upon open revolt if the hostile party continued in power. Whether he harbored a wish for the crown of Bohemia, along with other fantastic plans, it is hard to decide. The court of Vienna succeeded in detaching the principal generals (Piccolomini, Gallas, Aldringer, Marradas, Colloredo) from his cause. Ilow, Trzka, Kinski, remained faithful.

1634. Imperial proclamation: "Friedland was concerned in a con-Jan. 24. spiracy to rob the emperor of his crown." The chief

officers of the army commanded to no longer obey him.

Feb. 18. Second proclamation, formally deposing Wallenstein. On the 24th Wallenstein went to Eger, where he was to be met by Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, and Arnim. There occurred the

Feb. 25. Assassination of Wallenstein by captain Devereux, at the instigation of the Irish general, Butler, after his intimate friends had been treacherously massacred. The emperor had not commanded the murder, nor had he definitely desired it; but he had given rein to the party which he knew wished "to bring in Wallenstein, alive or dead," and, after the deed was done, he rewarded the murderers with honor and riches.

1634. Victory of the imperialists under Ferdinand, the emperor's son, and Gallas and the Bavarians (John of Werth), over the Swedes

at Nordlingen.

Peace of Prague, 1635.

May 30. between the emperor and the elector of Saxony. 1. The elector received Lusatia permanently, and the archbishopric of Magdeburg for his second son, August, for life. 2. Those ecclesiastical estates, not held immediately of the emperor, which had been confiscated before the convention of Passau (p. 305), should remain to the possessor forever; all others should remain for forty years (from 1627), and in case no further understanding was reached before the expiration of that period, forever, in the condition in which they were on Nov. 12, 1627. 3. Amnesty, except for participants in the disturbances in Bohemia and the Palatinate; common cause to be made against Sweden. The Lutherans alone to be allowed freedom of worship. Brandenburg and the majority of the other Protestant estates accepted the peace.

4. Swedish-French period (1635–1648).

The policy of Sweden was determined by Oxenstierna, that of France by Richelieu († 1642), and afterwards by Mazarin. France fought at first in the person of Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar only, with whom subsidy-treaties had been concluded, and who was trying to conquer himself a new state in Alsace, in place of the duchy of Franconia, which he had lost by the battle of Nördlingen. of Breisach, 1638. After his death (1639) France took control of his army.

1636. Victory of the Swedes under Banér at Wittstock over the Death of Ferdinand II. His imperialists and the Saxons.

Ferdinand III., was desirous of peace. 1637-1657.

The ducal house of Pommerania became extinct (1637).

After the death of Banér (1641) Torstenson became commanderin-chief of the Swedes.

Death of George William. Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg. (The great elector, 1640-1688).

Discussion of the preliminaries of peace in Hamburg. A congress agreed upon.

1642. Second Battle of Leipzig (Breitenfeld). Torstenson defeated the imperialists under *Piccolomini*.

Torstenson threatened the hereditary estates of the emperor. These Swedish successes aroused the envy of Christian IV. of Denmark. Hence

1643-1645. War between Denmark and Sweden.

Torstenson hastened by forced marches through Silesia, Sax-Sept. ony, Brunswick, to the north, conquered Holstein and Schleswig, and invaded Jütland.

Meanwhile the French in South Germany, under Marshall Guebriant, had penetrated to Rottweil (Würtemberg). Guébriant fell in battle. Shortly afterwards the French, under Rantzau, were surprised at Duttlingen by an Austro-Bavarian army under Mercy and Werth, and totally defeated.

Opening of the negotiations for peace in Osnabrück with the **1643**. Swedes; 1644 in Münster with the French.

Marshal Turenne and the twenty-one-year-old prince of Bourbon, duke of Enghien, afterwards Prince of Condé, appointed commandersin-chief of the French troops. They forced the

1644. Bavarians under Mercy to retreat. Condé captured Mannheim, Speier, and Philippsburg. Turenne took Worms, Oppenheim, Mainz, and Landau.

> Meanwhile an imperial army, under Gallas, had been sent to the aid of the Danes, who were hard pressed, both by land and by sea (by the Swedish admiral, Gustavus Wrangel). The im-

perial force was repulsed by Torstenson and Königsmark, pursued into Germany, and almost annihilated at Magdeburg.

March. Brilliant victory of Torstenson over the imperialists at Jankau, not far from Tabor, in Bohemia, whereupon, in union with the prince of Transylvania, Rakoczy, he conquered the whole of Moravia, and advanced hard upon Vienna.

Turenne defeated by John of Werth at Mergentheim, in Franconia.

Turenne, at the head of the French and Hessians, defeated the Aug. Bayarians at Allersheim.

Peace between Sweden and Denmark at Brömsebro (p. 352).

After a futile siege of Brunn, the plague having broken out in his army, Torstenson returned to Bohemia. He resigned his command on account of illness, and was succeeded by Wrangel.

1646. Wrangel left Bohemia, united to his own force the Swedish troops under Königsmark in Westphalia, and joined Turenne at Giessen. Swedes and French invaded Bavaria and forced the elector Maximilian to conclude the

1647. Truce of Ulm, and to renounce his alliance with the emperor. after Turenne had been recalled, from envy at the Swedish successes, and Wrangel had gone to Bohemia, Maximilian broke the truce and joined the imperialists again.

1648. Second invasion of Bavaria by the French and Swedes; terrible A flood in the Inn prevented the further advance of the allies, who returned to the upper Palatinate. The Swedish general Königsmark captured that part of Prague on the right bank of the Moldau (Kleinseite).

Terrible condition of Germany. Irreparable losses of men and Reduction of population; increase of poverty; retrograda-

tion in all ranks.

1648. Peace of Westphalia.

Oct. 24.

Negotiations from 1643-1648. Imperial ambassadors, count Trautmannsdorf and Dr. Volmar. French, count d'Avaux and count Swedish, count Oxenstierna, son of the chancellor, and Servien. baron Salvius. France and Sweden, against the will of the emperor, secured the participation of the estates of the empire in the negotiations.

Conditions of the Peace.1

A. Indemnifications.

1. Sweden received as a fief of the empire the whole of hither Pommerania and Rügen with a part of farther Pommerania (Stettin, Garz, Damm, Gollnow, Wollin, and Usedom), the city of Wismar, formerly belonging to Mecklenburg, and the bishoprics Bremen (not the city) and Werden as secular duchies, and five million rix dollars.

Sweden became a member of the diet with three votes.

2. France received without reservation of the feudal overlordship of the empire, hence with absolute sovereignty: the bishoprics and cities of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which had been in French hands since 1552; Pignerol, the city of Breisach, the landgravate of upper and lower Alsace, which belonged to a branch of the Austrian house, and the government of ten imperial cities in Alsace (prefectura provincialis decem civitatum imperialium), with express acknowledgment of their previous freedom. The other imperial estates in Alsace (particularly Strasburg) retained their immediate relation to the empire and their freedom. France also received the right of garrisoning Philippsburg.

3. Hesse-Cassel: abbey of Hersfeld, Schaumburg, the fiefs of

the foundation of Minden, and 600,000 rix dollars.

4. Brandenburg: as indemnification for Pommerania which belonged to Brandenburg by the law of inheritance, but of which it received the larger part of farther Pommerania only, the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Minden, and Camin as secular principalities, the archbishopric of Magdeburg as a duchy, with the reservation that it should remain in possession of the administrator August of Saxony, during his life († 1680).

5. Mecklenburg: the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg as

principalities.

6. Brunswick: alternate presentation to the bishopric of Osna-brück, where a Catholic and evangelical bishop were to alternate.

B. Secular Affairs of the Empire.

1. General amnesty and return to the condition of things in 1618.

2. The electoral dignity and the upper *Palatinate* were left in the hands of the Wilhelmian line (Bavaria) of the house of Wittelsbach, while a new electorate (the *eighth*) was created for the *Ru*-

dolfian line (Palatinate).

- 3. The territorial superiority (Landeshoheit) of the whole body of estates, as regarded their relation to the emperor, was recognized, which involved the right of concluding alliances with one another and with foreign powers, if they were not directed against empire or emperor. (Afterwards, since 1663, the standing diet at Regensburg developed the German constitution more in detail.)
 - 4. The republics of the United Netherlands and of Switzerland

were recognized as independent of the empire (p. 247).

1 K. F. Michhorn, Deutsche Staats-u. Rechtsgeschichte, iv. § 522 foll.

C. Ecclesiastical Affairs (Gravamina ecclesiastica).

1. The Convention of Passau and the Peace of Augsburg (p. 305) were approved and extended so as to include the Calvinists.

2. Catholic and Protestant estates were to be on an entire equality

in all affairs of the empire.

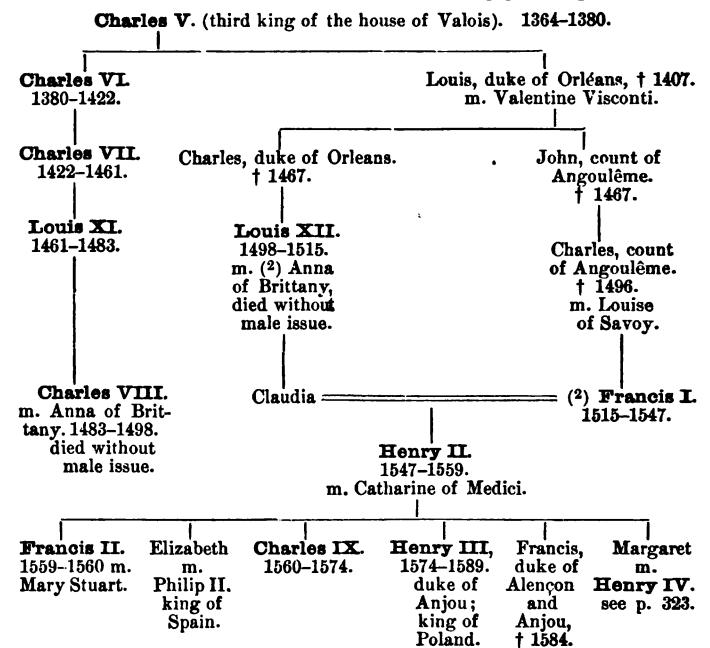
3. January 1, 1624, was adopted as the norm (annus normalis) by which questions of ownership of ecclesiastical estates and exercise of religion should be settled. As things were upon that date, so they were to remain forever; that is, the ecclesiastical reservation (p. 306) was acknowledged to be binding for the future. The subjugated Protestants in Austria and Bohemia obtained no rights by the peace, but those evangelical states which had been gained by the anti-reformation during the war (the Lower Palatinate, Würtemberg, Baden, etc.) were allowed to resume the exercise of that religion which had been theirs in 1618. The jus reformandi, the privilege of deciding by fiat the religion of those subjects to whom the year 1628 did not secure free exercise of religion, was retained for the future by the territorial lords. The right of emigration was, however, reserved to the subjects in such cases. The imperial court (Reichskammergericht) was restored, and its members were to be equally divided between Protestants and Catholics.

France and Sweden guaranteed the peace.

§ 5. FRANCE.

1498-1589. Houses of Orleans and Angoulême.

Branch line of the house of Valois (since 1328, p. 257) whose relation to the main line is shown in the following genealogical table:



1498-1515. Louis XII.

obtained a divorce from Joanna, daughter of Louis XI., and married Anna of Brittany, widow of Charles VIII., in order to keep this duchy for the crown; as grandson of Valentine Visconti he laid claim to Milan, drove out Ludovico Moro, who was imprisoned when he ventured to return to Milan (1500).

1501. Louis XII. in alliance with Ferdinand the Catholic, king of Arragon, conquered the kingdom of Naples. The Spaniards and French soon falling out, the latter were defeated by the Spanish general Gonzalvo de Cordova on the Garigliano (1504). Louis XII. gave up his claims to Naples.

1508. Louis a party in the league of Cambray, p. 300. In 1511 the Pope, Ferdinand the Catholic, and Venice, concluded the Holy League, with the object of driving the French out of Italy. The lat-

ter, under the young Gaston de Foix, duke of Nemours, nephew of Louis XII., were at first successful in the war, taking Brescia (1512) by storm (Bayard, "without reproach or fear"), and defeating the united Spanish and Papal armies at Ravenna, with the aid of 5000 German mercenaries, in the same year; they were, however, compelled by the Swiss to evacuate Milan. In 1513 the French formed a new alliance with Venice, but were defeated by the Swiss at Novara and withdrew from Italy. Henry VIII. of England, who had joined the Holy League in 1512, and the emperor Maximilian who had joined in 1513, invaded France, and defeated the French at 1513. Guinegate, called the "Battle of the Spurs" from the hasty Aug. 17. flight of the French.

France concluded peace with the Pope, with Spain (1513), with the emperor, and with Henry VIII. (1514). Anna of Brittany having died, Louis took, as his third wife, Mary the sister of Henry VIII. He died soon after the marriage (Jan. 1, 1515). He was succeeded by his cousin, the Count of Angoulême, who had married Claudia, daughter of Louis XII. and Anna, hence heiress of Brittany, which, however, was not actually incorporated with France until 1598. As king the count of Angoulême is known as

- 1515-1547. Francis I. Courageous, fond of display, dissolute.
- 1515. He reconquered Milan by the brilliant victory of Marignano Sept. 13-14. over the Swiss, who fought most bravely. Peace and alliance between France and Switzerland. Treaty of Geneva (Nov. 7, 1515); treaty of Fribourg (Nov. 29, 1516). The latter (la paix perpetuelle) endured till the French Revolution.
- 1516. Increase of the royal power by a Concordat with the Pope which rescinded the Pragmatic Sanction of 1438 and placed the choice of bishops and abbots in the hands of the king; the Pope on the other hand received the annates, or the first year's revenue of every ecclesiastical domain where the king's right of presentation was exercised. Francis also abandoned the principle of the Council of Basle, that the Pope was subordinate to an ecumenical council.

1520. Meeting of Francis and Henry VIII. of England in the neighborhood of Calais. "Field of the Cloth of Gold." The wars of Francis with Charles V. (p. 302, etc.) occupied the rest of Francis' reign. Restrictions upon the political rights of the Parliaments. Cultivation of literature and the arts. Rabelais (1483–1553). Persecutions of the Protestants. Francis died March 31, 1547. He was succeeded by his son

1547–1559. Henry II.

Growing power of the house of Guise (Francis, duke of Guise, and Charles, "Cardinal of Lorraine").

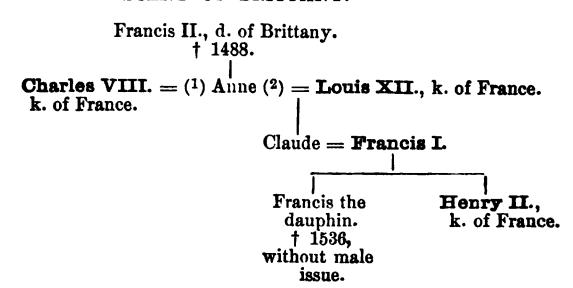
† 1588.

HOUSE OF LORRAINE AND GUISE.

René le Bon, d. of Anjou and titular king of Naples and Sicily, m. Isabella, d. of Lorraine. John II., Yolonde, Margaret, m. Henry VI., k. d. of Lor- d. of Lorraine, raine and m. Ferri II., c. of of England. Vaudemont, Guise, etc. Bar. Nicolas, René II., d. of Lorraine and Bar. d. of Lorraine and Bar, † 1473. c. of Vaudemont, Guise, etc. no male issue. † 1508. Claude I., c. of Antoine, d. of Aumâle, d. of Lorraine and Bar. † 1544. Guise (1527). Francis I., Charles, Francis, d. of Claude, d. Louis, Mary, m. Guise, murdered 1563. Card. of of Aumâle. Card. of James V. d. of Lorraine Lorraine. and Bar. Guise. of Scotland. Mary, queen of Scots. Charles II., d. of Henry, d. Charles, d. of Louis, Cardinal Lorraine and Bar. of Guise. Mayenne. of Guise. † 1608. † 1588.

Henry's mistress, Diana of Poitiers, duchess of Valentinois, ruled him almost absolutely. Montmorency, constable. Persecution of the Protestants in France; assistance to German Protestants. Final union of Brittany with the French crown.

DESCENT OF BRITTANY.



- 1552. War with Charles V. (p. 306.) Seizure of the three bishoprics, Toul, Metz, Verdun.
- 1556-1559. War with Philip II. of Spain. The French defeated by the Spaniards with the aid of the English at

1557. St. Quentin (on the Somme), and by count Egmont at Grave-lines (1558).

1558. Calais and Guines, the last English possessions in France, Jan. captured by Francis, duke of Guise.

1559. Peace of Cateau-Cambrésis: the French restored all their con-April. quests except Calais and the three bishoprics (Metz, Toul and Verdun). Henry II., who died of a wound received in a tourney, was succeeded by his three weak sons.

1559-1560. Francis II. (sixteen years old),

the first husband of Mary Stuart of Scotland, a niece of the Guises. Persecution of the Protestants (chambres ardentes). Cruel executions. The king's mother, Catharine de' Medici, struggled for power and influence against the Bourbon princes, Anton (king of Navarre) and Louis of Condé, descended from Louis IX. The Guises, at first rivals of the queen and then in alliance with her, conducted all affairs of state and surpassed in influence their opponents, the Catholic constable Montmorency, and his nephews, the three brothers Châtillon: Gaspard, admiral de Coligny (1517-1572), Francois d'Andelot, Cardinal Châtillon, afterwards leaders of the Huguenots. De l'Hôpital, chancellor. Conspiracy of Amboise (La Renaudie) against the Guises defeated (1560). Death of Francis II.

1560-1574. Charles IX.,

ten years old, under the influence of his mother, Catharine de' Medici.

1562-1598. Wars of the Huguenots.1

Cruel persecutions compelled the Huguenots to take up arms. At the same time they became a political party opposed to the Catholic party. The wars of the Huguenots were therefore not simply religious wars, but also political civil wars, in which the leaders of both parties were endeavoring to take advantage of the weakness of the king and get control of the government. The first three wars form properly one war, interrupted by truces called peaces (Amboise, 1503, Longjumeau, 1568, St. Germain, 1570), which were without result. The conditional freedom of religious worship permitted the Huguenots was to be guaranteed by the surrender to them for two years, of the four strong towns La Rochelle, Cognac, Montauban, La Charité. 1572. Night of St. Bartholomew.

Aug. 23-24. Murder of admiral Coligny and general massacre of Huguenots, under the conduct of Henry of Guise and Tavannes, on the occasion of the marriage of Henry of Bourbon, king of

¹ Huguenots is said to be a nickname derived from King Hugo, a spectre which, in the belief of the people, nightly haunted the streets of Paris; whence the Protestants, from their nocturnal gatherings, were called Huguenots. Others derive the name from a corruption of Eidgenossen, confederates.

Navarre (son of Anton, king of Navarre) with the sister of Charles IX., Margaret of Valois. Henry of Navarre saved his life by a pretended conversion to Catholicism. Over 3,000 Huguenots were slain in the capital, in the whole of France about 30,000. This bloody deed led to the

1572-1573. Fourth Civil War. La Rochelle, besieged by Henry, duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., made a brave defense. The election of the duke of Anjou to the crown of Poland brought about a compromise. Edict of Boulogne (July 8, 1573) ended the war favorably to the Huguenots.

Charles IX. died May 30, 1574. His brother, who fled from Po-

land, became king.

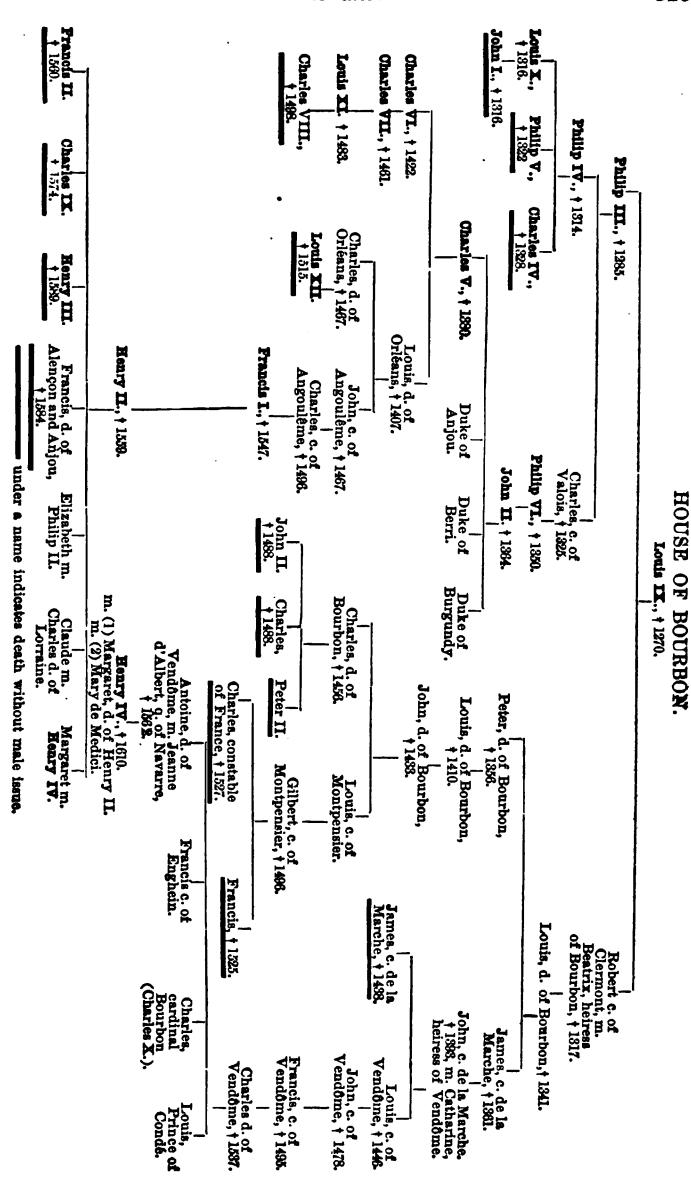
1574-1589. Henry III., a debauched weakling.

The fifth civil war, during which Henry of Navarre re-assumed the Protestant faith, was concluded (1576) by conditions more favorable to the Huguenots than those of any previous peace. Peace of Chastenoy (Paix de Monsieur, after the duke of Alençon) May 6, 1576. Hence dissatisfaction among the Catholics. Origin of the Holy League (1576) which in alliance with Philip II. of Spain purposed the annihilation of the reformed party, and the elevation of the Guises to the throne. The king, out of fear of the League proclaimed himself its head and forbade the exercise of the Protestant religion throughout France. The Protestants and moderate Catholics had joined forces in 1575 by the confederation of Milhaud (politique-Huguenot).

Sixth Civil War, wherein the Huguenots were defeated, but obtained favorable terms at the peace of Bergerac (or Poitiers, Sept. 17, 1577), as the king was unwilling to let the League become too powerful. In spite of the renewal of the treaty of peace, not one of its articles was executed. This caused the

Seventh Civil War (La guerre des amoureux) (1580), which was ended in the same year by the treaty of Fleix (near St. Foy), Nov. 26, in which the conditions granted the Huguenots in former treaties were confirmed. The death of Francis, duke of Alençon (since the accession of Henry III., duke of Anjou), the younger brother of the king, in 1584 rendered the extinction of the house of Valois certain. As it was the intention of the League to exclude from the throne Henry of Navarre, who belonged to the reformed religion, and to give the crown to the latter's uncle, the Cardinal of Bourbon, and as the League meantime induced the king to revoke the concessions granted to the Huguenots, there broke out the

Henrys (Henry III. of Valois, Henry of Navarre, Henry of Guise). The Catholic party triumphed in spite of the victory of Coutras (Oct. 20, 1587), gained by Henry of Navarre. Formation of the League of Sixteen at Paris, which purposed the deposition of the weak king. Guise entered Paris, was received with acclamation ("King of Paris"); the timid resistance of the king was broken by a popular insurrection (day of the Barricades, May 12,



1588). Henry III. fled to Blois, where he summoned the estates of the kingdom (États-Généraux, States General). Finding no support among them against the League, he caused Henry, duke of Guise, and his brother, Louis the Cardinal, to be murdered (Dec. 23, 1588). At this news, a revolt of the Catholic party broke out, headed by the brother of the murdered men, the duke of Mayenne. Henry III. fled to Henry of Navarre in the Huguenot camp, where he was murdered before Paris, at St. Cloud, by the monk Jacob Clément (July 31, † Aug. 2). Death of Catharine de' Medici (Jan. 5, 1589), Michael Montaigne, 1533–1592.

1589-1792. (1830.) House of Bourbon

descended from St. Louis IX.'s younger son Robert, count of Clermont, husband of Beatrice of Bourbon.

1589-1610. Henry IV.

The Catholic party refused to recognize Henry and made the old cardinal of Bourbon king under the name of Charles X. († 1590). Some wished the duke of Mayenne to be his successor, while others joined themselves to Philip II. of Spain, who laid claim to the throne of France on behalf of his daughter by his third marriage with Elizabeth of Valois, sister of Henry III. Victory of Henry IV. over the duke of Mayenne at Arques (1589) and at the

1590. Battle of Ivry. March 14.

Henry besieged Paris, which was relieved by Mayenne and the duke of Parma. Henry abjured the reformed religion at St. Denis (1593) and was crowned at Chartres (1594). Brissac having thereupon surrendered Paris to him, the power of the League was broken. Not, however, until Henry, after public penance, by his ambassadors at Rome, had been freed from the papal ban, was he generally recognized (by Mayenne too). The civil wars of religion were ended by the

1598. Edict of Nantes, April 15.

which gave the Huguenots equal political rights with the Catholics, but by no means secured them entire freedom of religious worship. The edict granted the exercise of the reformed religion to nobles having the right of criminal jurisdiction (seigneurs hauts justiciers), and to the citizens of a certain number of cities and towns, but prohibited it in all episcopal and archiepiscopal cities, at the court of the king, and in Paris, as well as within a circle of twenty miles around the capital. Public offices were opened to the Huguenots and mixed chambers were established in four Parliaments (Paris, Toulouse, Grenoble, Bordeaux). The Huguenots obtained some fortified towns, and were recognized, to a certain extent, as an armed political party. The Edict of Nantes was registered by the Parliament only after a long delay. Treaty of Vervins (May 2, 1598) with Spain; restoration of all conquests to France.

Adoption of measures looking to the improvement of the finances

and the general prosperity, which had gone to decay, especially by Rosny, afterwards duke of Sully (1560-1641). Fantastic plan of the king's (?) to establish a universal Christian republic in Europe, comprising six hereditary monarchies (France, England, Spain, Denmark, Sweden, Lombardy), five elective monarchies (the Empire, Papacy, Hungary, Poland, Bohemia), and four republics (Switzerland, Italy, Venice, Belgium), which probably would have turned out to be a league against the too great power of the house of Hapsburg. Question of Cleves-Jülich succession. Henry IV. supported the claims of Brandenburg. In the midst of great preparations for war, Henry was assassinated at Paris, 1610 (May 14), by the fanatic (François) Ravaillac. He was succeeded by his minor son,

1610-1643. Louis XIII.,

nine years old. Regency of his mother, Mary de' Medici (1610–1617). Sully removed from office; the Italian Concini (Maréchal d'Ancre) was placed in control of affairs. Louis XIII., declared of age in 1614, was in fact all his life under the guidance of others. Summons of the States-General, 1614, being the last before the Revolution of 1789. Arrest and murder of Concini; the queen mother banished to Blois (1617). The king under the influence of his favorite, the duke of Luynes. By the mediation of Armand-Jean du Plessis (born 1585, in Poitou, 1607 bishop of Luçon, 1622 cardinal), duke of Richelieu, a treaty was concluded between Luynes and the queen mother (1619). New civil war. Contest of the crown with the nobility and the Huguenots. After the death of Luynes (1621) Mary de' Medici and her favorite, Richelieu, obtained control of affairs. The influence of the latter soon became supreme, and the queen-dowager quarreled with him.

1624-1642. Administration of Richelieu, whose influence over the king was henceforward unbroken. Numerous conspiracies against Richelieu instigated by Gaston of Orléans, the king's brother.

1625. Revolt of the Huguenots under the dukes of Rohan and Soubise.

of Richelieu. In spite of the dispatch of three fleets from England to the aid of the Huguenots, the city surrendered Oct. 28, 1628, after a heroic resistance of fourteen months. Defeat of the duke of Rohan, and complete subjugation of the Huguenots, who hereafter were no longer an armed political party, but only a tolerated sect. War in Italy with Spain; subjugation of Savoy, Richelieu at the head of the army. Treaty of Cherasco (April 6, 1631). France renounced all conquests in Italy, but by a secret treaty with Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, Pignerol was surrendered to France (negotiators of these treaties, Richelieu's confidant, Father Joseph and the Pope's agent, Mazarin).

A final attempt of Mary Medici to overthrow the cardinal ignominiously failed (Nov. 11, 1630, the "Day of Dupes"). Mary died

at Cologne, 1642.

Conspiracy of Gaston and the duke of Montmorency.

1632, Oct. 30. Defeat of the allies and execution of Montmorency. Foundation of the French Academy (1635).

1631-48. Participation of France in the Thirty Years' War. See

p. 314. 1641. Conspiracy of *Henri d'Effiat*, marquis of Cinq-Mars ("Monsieur le Grand"). Secret treaty with Spain. The plot was exposed by Richelieu.

1642. Dec. 4. Death of Richelieu.

The effect of Richelieu's administration had been to break the power of the nobles and make the crown independent of the parliaments. He restored French influence in Italy, in the Netherlands, in Germany (311), and established it in Sweden. Richelieu laid the foundation of the power of Louis XIV.

Louis XIII. died May 14, 1643.

§ 6. ITALY.

The duchy of Milan, since 1556 (p. 306) an appanage of the Spanish crown, was held, nominally, as a fief of the empire.

Venice.

The discovery of the new route to the Indies struck at the root of the commercial prosperity of Venice, and her power was steadily declining during this period. The danger which threatened the republic from the League of Cambray (1508), between the Pope, the emperor Maximilian, Louis XII., and Ferdinand the Catholic, passed away as the Pope, Julius II. withdrew from the League in 1510, made his peace with the Venetians and induced Ferdinand the Catholic to join the Holy League, which had for its object the expulsion of the French from Italy. On the other hand the Turkish power confined Venice to the coasts of the Mediterranean. In 1570 the Turks attacked Cyprus, of which Venice had acquired possession in 1489 The victory of Lepanto, gained by Don John of Austria (p. 331), retarded the progress of the Turks but little. In 1573 Venice was forced to deliver Cyprus to them, and at the close of this period retained of all her possessions in Grecian waters, Candia, Paros, and the Ionian Islands only.

Genoa.

Genoa freed herself in 1529 from French supremacy, under the doge, Andrea Doria, who gave the republic a new constitution. Unsuccessful conspiracy of Fiesco (Jan. 2, 1547). Gianettino Doria, the nephew of the doge, was murdered, and Andrea Doria was compelled to fly. The conspirators had got possession of nearly the whole city, when Fiesco was accidentally drowned. Return of the doge, restoration of the constitution.

Savoy.

The dukes of Savoy, who also possessed *Piedmont*, were the most powerful of the native dynasties of northern Italy. Nevertheless, during this period, *Bern* deprived them of the *Waadtland*, and they got into straits during the war between France and the empire. After the peace of *Cateau-Cambresis* (1559), *Emmanuel Philibert* was reinstated in his duchy.

Florence.

In the year in which Charles VIII. of France invaded Italy (1494), Peter di Medici, son of Lorenzo, who had concluded a treaty with the king, was driven from the city. The Dominican monk Savonarola (born 1452, prior of San Marco, 1490) was leader of the democratic party in Florence; asceticism for a short time fashionable in Flor-Savonarola excommunicated, and executed (May 23, 1498). In 1512 the Medici were restored in consequence of the victory of the Holy League (pp. 300 and 318). In 1527 the Medici were a second time expelled, and the republic for a while restored. In 1530, however, Charles VIII. appointed Alexander di Medici hereditary ruler in Florence, and he soon assumed the ducal title. After his murder by his cousin, Lorenzino, Cosimo (Cosmus) di Medici became duke (1537). He incorporated the republic of Siena with his territory, and in 1569 was created grand duke of Tuscany by Pope Pius V. Under Cosimo II., Galileo Galilei (1564-1642) taught in Florence, who, in 1633, was forced to abjure the Copernican System by the Inquisition at Rome ("It does move though").

The Papacy.

The following popes of this period deserve mention: the debauched and criminal Alexander VI. (1492-1503), of the family of Borgia. His daughter was Lucrezia Borgia; his second son Cæsar Borgia, ruler of the Romagna; the warlike Julius II. (1503-1513); the scholarly Leo X. (1513-1521) of the family of Medici, a patron of art; the fanatical Paul IV. (Caraffa, 1555-1559), upon whose advice Paul III. had established the Inquisition in 1542; Gregory XIII. (1572-1585), who revised the calendar by striking out leap year at the close of each century, excepting every fourth century; the wise and severe Sixtus V. (1585-1590), who suppressed the banditti in the Papal States and adorned Rome. (Reërection of obelisks, completion of the dome of St. Peter's.²)

Naples.

Naples throughout this period was an appanage of Spain (since 1504, see p. 318). Insurrection of the fisherman, *Tommaso Aniello*, called *Masaniello* (1647), soon suppressed († July 16).

Most flourishing period of Italian art. Painters: Leonardo da Vinci (1452-1519); Raphael Santi (erroneously called Sanzio, 1483-

<sup>This saying, it is now claimed, is unauthenticated. — [TRANS.]
Ranke, die römichen Päpste, 6th ed., 1878.</sup>

1520); Antonio Allegri, called Correggio (1494–1534); Michael Angelo Buonarotti (1475–1504), also sculptor and architect; Titian (1477–1576); Paul Veronese (about 1535–1588). Poets: Ariosto (1474–1533); Torquato Tasso (1544–1595). Politician: Macchiavelli (1469–1527).

§ 7. SPANISH PENINSULA AND THE NETHERLANDS.

By the marriage of

1479-1516. Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon and Isabella 1474-1504. of Castile (p. 276), which was consummated before the accession of either to the throne, the way was prepared for the future union of the two kingdoms.

1492. Conquest of Grenada, capital of the last Moorish kingdom Jan. 2. in the peninsula. In the same year, discovery of America.

(p. 282), and consequent acquisitions on the other side of the ocean for the crown of Castile. Conquest of Naples (1501–1504, see p. 327) for the crown of Aragon. Annexation of the grandmasterships of the three military orders of Calatrava (1487), Alcántăra (1494), and San Jago (1499), to the crown. Support given to the league of the cities (Hermandad) against the robber-nobles; (Spanish)

Inquisition.

Upon Isabella's death (1504) her daughter, Joanna, wife of Philip, archduke of Austria (p. 301), was the legal heiress of Castile. Her father, Ferdinand the Catholic, however, who had long planned the union of the two kingdoms in one kingdom of Spain, obtained from the Cortes authority to carry on the government in place of his absent daughter. In 1506, Philip and Joanna went to Castile to expel Ferdinand by force. Meeting of the two princes and treaty of Villafafila, whereby the regency was granted to Philip. Shortly after the treaty Philip died suddenly (of poison?), and Ferdinand resumed the regency († 1516). Joanna, who was insane, was kept in strict confinement for 49 years († 1555), first by her father, afterwards by her son Charles. Ferdinand was succeeded in both kingdoms (at first as co-regent of his mother, in theory) by the son of Philip and Joanna.

Netherlands.

Preliminary: These provinces, originally inhabited by Batavians and other German tribes, formed a part of the empire of Charles the Great, and after the treaty of Mersen (870) belonged in great part to Germany, forming a dependence of the duchy of Lotharingia. The decline of the ducal power favored the growth of powerful counties and duchies, such as Brabant, Flanders, Guelders, Holland, Zealand, Hainault, and the bishopric of Utrecht. After 1384, and during the fifteenth century, the provinces were brought under control of the dukes of Burgundy.

¹ The view advanced by Bergenroth (Karl V. und Johanna, in V. Sybel's Hist. Zeits., 1868), that Joanna was only declared insane from political reasons, has been clearly shown by other scholars (Gachard, Ræsler, Maurenbrecher) to rest on misunderstandings.

Philip II. the Bold,

Fourth son of John II., k. of France. In 1363 made duke of Burgundy (the duchy reverted to the crown, 1361, by the extinction of the first ducal line in the person of Philip I.). In 1369 m. Margaret, dau. and heiress of Louis III., c. of Flanders and Artois, † 1404.

John the Fearless,

duke of Burgundy, 1404-1419.

Philip the Good,

duke of Burgundy, 1419-1467.

Acquired Namur, by purchase, in 1425; in 1430, Brabant and Limburg, which had been bequeathed by Joanna, dau. of John III., d. of Brabant, to her great-nephew, Antoine, brother of John the Fearless; in 1433, Holland, Hainault (Hennegau), Zealand, by cession from Jacqueline c. of Holland (of the Bavarian line); in 1443, Luxemburg, by cession from Elizabeth of Luxemburg, and by purchase; he also acquired Antwerp and Mechlin.

Charles the Bold,

duke of Burgundy, 1467-1477.

Acquired Gelderland and Zutphen in 1472, by bequest from duke Arnold.

Mary, † 1482 = Maximilian, archduke of Austria.

Joanna, dau. of Ferdi- = nand of Arragon, and Isabella of Castile.

= Philip the Handsome, archduke of Austria, duke of Burgundy.

Charles I. $(\nabla \cdot)$

k. of Spain; archduke of Austria, d. of Burgundy, k. of Naples and Sicily, lord of Spanish America, emperor.

They descended to the Hapsburg heirs of Charles the Bold, united and having a common states-general. In 1548 Charles V. annexed the seventeen provinces (Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, Gelderland, Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namur, Zutphen, East and West Friesland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overyssel, Gröningen) to the Burgundian circle of the empire.

1516-1556. Charles I. (as emperor, Charles V. p. 302).

After suppressing a revolt in Castile he founded the absolute monarchy, the Cortes henceforth having no importance. In America conquest of Mexico, Peru, Chili, New Granada (p. 283, etc.). Upon his abdication the Spanish lands and the colonies, the Netherlands, Franche-Comté, Naples, and Milan, descended to his son

1556-1598. Philip II., who married four times: 1. Mary of Portugal, mother of Don Carlos; 2. Mary the Catholic, of England (p. 336); 3. Elizabeth of Valois (p. 318); 4. Anne, daughter of Maximilian II.

War with France (p. 381). Bloody persecution of the Moors and the Protestants in Spain. Inquisition, autos da fé (i. e. acts of the faith). Conflict between the king and his heir, Don Carlos; the latter was arrested and died in prison (1568). Don John of Austria, a natural son of Charles I. (V.), gained over the Turks the

1571, Oct. 7. Naval battle of Lepanto (on the Gulf of Corinth).

1568-1648. War of Liberation in the Netherlands.

Cause: The provinces of the Netherlands, which fell to Spain after the abdication of Charles I., rejoiced in the possession of ancient and important privileges. The estates (Staaten, états) granted taxes and The Spanish garrison, the penal edicts against heretics, the dread of the introduction of the Spanish Inquisition, led, during the rule of the regent Margaret of Parma (1559-1567), the natural sister of king Philip II., and her adviser, bishop Granvella, to a league of the nobles (the Compromis de Bréda), headed by Philip Marnix of St. Aldegonde. Presentation of a petition by 300 nobles (Geusen, Gueux, a party name, originating in the contemptuous exclamation of the count of Barlaimont: Ce n'est qu'un tas de queux). Insurrection of the lower classes. Destruction of images, and sack of the churches. These disturbances were opposed by Lamoral, count of Egmont (b. 1522, fought under Charles V. in Algiers, Germany, France; led the cavalry at St. Quentin, and Gravelines, 1558; appointed governor of Flanders and Artois by Charles V.; executed June 5, 1568), and William of Nassau, prince of Orange, the leaders of the higher nobility in the Netherlands, who were soon no longer masters of the move-Separation into a Catholic and a Protestant party. Although quiet was finally restored Philip sent the

1567. Duke of Alva with 20,000 Spaniards by way of Genoa, Savoy, and Franche Comté to the Netherlands. William of Orange and many thousand Netherlanders left their native land. Margaret resigned her regency and left the country. Creation of the "Council of Blood." The counts of Egmont and of Hoorn and many others were executed (1568). The estates of those who did not appear before the tribunal were confiscated, including those of William of Orange. The latter and his brother, Louis of Orange, invaded the Netherlands, but were repulsed by Alva.

The arbitrary taxes imposed by Alva (the tenth *pfennig* from the price of every article sold, the one hundredth part of every income), produced a new revolt. Capture of *Brille*, on the mouth of the Meuse by the Water Beggars (1572). Rapid spread of the insurrection,

particularly in the northern provinces.

1573. Alva recalled at his own request. His successor, Luis de Requesens y Zuniga, gained a victory

1574. At Mookerheide, where two brothers of the prince of Orange fell, but could not suppress the revolt, and died (1576). The sack of the cities of Antwerp, Mastricht, Ghent, etc., by the royal troops brought about the

1576. Pacification of Ghent, a treaty between all the provinces, whereby they united, without regard to national or religious

differences, to drive the Spanish soldiers from the country.

The new governor, Don John of Austria (p. 330), was not recognized by the majority of the provinces. In spite of the new disputes which had broken out among them he was unable to quiet the country, and died, 1578. He was succeeded by Alexander Farnese, duke of Parma (1578–1592), a shrewd statesman and an excellent general. He reduced the southern Catholic provinces, which form modern Belgium, to submission on condition of the restoration of their old political freedom. The seven northern provinces, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Gelderland, Gröningen, Friesland, Overyssel, concluded

1579. The Union of Utrecht,

proclaimed their complete independence of Spain (in 1581) and settled the hereditary Statthaltership upon William of Orange (the Silent, b. 1533, inherited the principality of Orange, 1544, appointed commander-in-chief of the Netherlands and governor of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht, by Charles V., resigned his offices 1567, converted to Protestantism, elected commander-in-chief by the rebels, 1572, relieved Leyden, Oct., 1574, murdered by Balthazar Gerard, 10th July, 1584). After his murder at Delft, his son, the seventeen-year-old Maurice of Nassau, became the head of the seven provinces. Successful campaign of Alexander of Parma; capture of Antwerp. The help furnished the Hollanders by the English (Leicester) induced Philip to fit out the Great Armada, which was destroyed by terrible storms and the bravery of the English (1588). After a long contest with changing fortunes, there was concluded under

1598–1621. Philip III.

1609. The ten years' truce, on the basis of possession at the time. Under the weak king, who was controlled by his favorites, the dukes of Lerma and Uzeda, father and son, the power and the prosperity of Spain declined, exhausted by constant war, the demoralization consequent on the discovery of America and the introduction of American gold, and the expulsion of 800,000 Moors, the most learned and industrious inhabitants of the peninsula. After the expiration of the truce with Holland the war was resumed until under

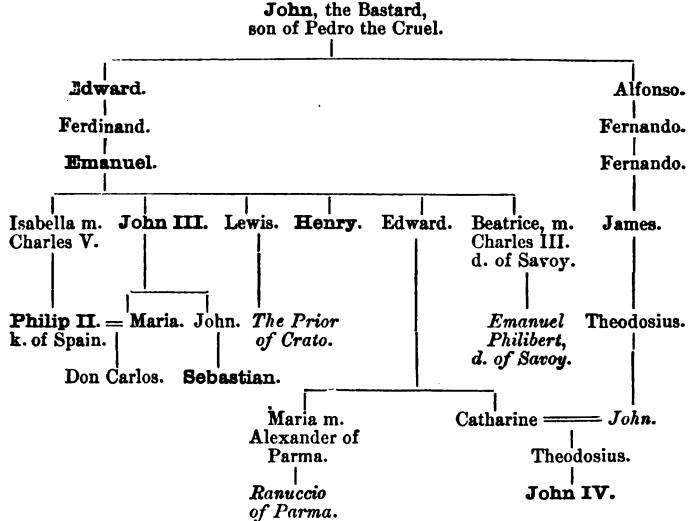
1621-1665. Philip IV.

The Republic of the United Provinces obtained the 1648. recognition of their independence from Spain and the empire at the Peace of Westphalia.

Under Philip III. and IV. (minister Olivarez), decline of the Spanish power. Insurrection of the Catalonians, lasting twelve years.

Revolt of Portugal.

Portugal, under the illegitimate house of Burgundy (1385–1580), descendants of John the Bastard († 1433), son of Peter the Cruel, who was a descendant of Robert, duke of Burgundy, grandson of Hugh Capet.



Kings of Portugal in heavy type. Claimants (except Philip II.) in italics.

1495-1521. Emanuel the Great. Golden age.

Acquisitions in the East Indies, South America (Brazil), and Northern Africa. Under his successors, decline of the Portuguese power. Sebastian fell in the unfortunate

1578. Battle of Alkassor in Morocco. After the death of his successor, Henry,

- 1581-1640. Portugal became a Spanish province. Four (?) false Sebastians. An almost bloodless revolution raised to the throne of Portugal the duke
- 1540. John of Braganza, as John IV. (descended through his mother from the *legitimate*, through his father from the *illegitimate* son of John the Bastard).
- ¹ After the death of Henry (1580) there were five claimants for the crown of Portugal.

§ 8. ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

1485-1603. House of Tudor (pp. 273, 275).

1485-1509. Henry VII.

Henry's first act was to imprison the Earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence. The first parliament (1485) secured the crown to Henry and his heirs. Five checks on the crown: 1. imposition of new taxes and 2, the enactment of new laws without the consent of parliament prohibited; 3. no man could be imprisoned without legal warrant; 4. trial should be before twelve jurors in the county where the offense was committed, and there should be no appeal; 5. officers of the crown were liable to trial for damages before a jury in case any person were injured by them, and no authority from the king could be pleaded. Violation of these checks. Reëstablishment of the king's court (Star Chamber? 1488), which took cognizance of forgery, perjury, fraud, libel, conspiracy, etc., gave sentence without the use of a jury, and inflicted fines and mutilations.

1487. The pretended earl of Warwick (Simnel) landed in England, but was defeated at Stoke (16 June, 1487), and became one

of the king's scullions.

1488-1499. Attempts of Perkin Warbeck, a Fleming who personated the duke of York, to overthrow Henry. Disavowed by Charles VIII. in the peace of Estaples (Nov. 9, 1492) which ended the war in which Henry had engaged on account of the annexation of Brittany by Charles VIII. (1491), Perkin found a warm reception in Flanders from the duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV. Expelled from Flanders by a provision of the commercial treaty with England (1496 Magnus intercursus), Perkin fled to Scotland, where his claim was recognized. Perkin and James IV. of Scotland invaded England in 1496. In 1497 a formidable insurrection broke out in Cornwall on occasion of an imposition of a tax by parliament. It was suppressed by the defeat at Blackheath (June 22, 1497), and the leaders executed (Flammock). Peace with Scotland (Sept. 1497). Warbeck was soon taken and imprisoned in the Tower, where he escaped, but was recaptured. Plotting another escape with the earl of Warwick, both Perkin and Warwick were executed (1499).

1495. Statute of Drogheda (Poyning's law). 1. No Irish parliament should be held without the consent of the king of England. 2. No bill could be brought forward in an Irish parliament without his consent. 3. All recent laws enacted in the Eng-

lish parliament should hold in Ireland.

1502. Marriage of Henry's eldest daughter, Margaret, with James IV., king of Scotland.

Henry's distinguishing characteristic was his avarice; by various extortions (Empson, Dudley, "Morton's Fork") he accumulated a fortune of nearly £2,000,000.

During this reign occurred the discovery of the West Indies by

Columbus (1492) and that of North America by the Cabots.

1509-1547. Henry VIII.,

of a cruel disposition and variable temperament. He was six times married: 1. Catharine of Aragon, widow of his brother Arthur, mother of Mary the Catholic (married June 3, 1509, divorced March 30, 1533). 2. Anne Boleyn, mother of Elizabeth (married Jan. 25, 1533, beheaded May 19, 1536). 3. Jane Seymour (married May 20, 1536, died after the birth of her son Edward VI., Oct. 24, 1537). 4. Anne of Cleves (married Jan. 6, 1540, divorced June 24, 1540). 5. Catharine Howard (married Aug. 8, 1540, beheaded Feb. 12, 1542). 6. Catharine Parr, widow of lord Latimer (married July 10, 1543, outlived the king). Henry united in his person the claim of both Lancaster and York.

Execution of *Empson* and *Dudley*.

1511. Henry a member of the Holy League (p. 300), received from the Pope the title of "Most Christian King."

Henry having laid claim to the French crown sent troops to Spain, which were unsuccessful (1512). In 1513 the king went to France in person and with Maximilian, the emperor, won the bloodless victory of

1513, Aug. 17. Guinegate, the "Battle of the Spurs" (p. 319).

1513, Sept. 9. Battle of Flodden Field. Defeat and death of James IV. of Scotland who was allied with France.

1514, Aug. Peace with France (Tournay ceded to England, afterwards (1518) bought by France for 600,000 crowns) and with Scotland.

1515. Thomas Wolsey, the king's favorite, chancellor (b. 1471, appointed almoner and dean of Lincoln by Henry VII., member of the council 1510, bishop of Tournay 1513, bishop of Lincoln and archbishop of York 1514, cardinal and chancellor 1515, papal legate 1517, surrendered the great seal 1529, † Nov. 28, 1530).

1520, June 7. Meeting of Henry VIII. and Francis I. of France near

Calais ("Field of the Cloth of Gold").

1521. Execution of the duke of Buckingham on a charge of high treason. Buckingham was descended from Edward III. (p. 277).

1521. Henry wrote the "Assertion of the Seven Sacraments" in reply to Luther, and received the title of "Defender of the

Faith " from Pope Leo V.

After the battle of Pavia the relations between Henry and the emperor, which had been weakened by the double failure of the emperor to secure the promised election of Wolsey as Pope, became so strained that war seemed inevitable, and a forced loan was assessed on the kingdom, which brought in but little. In 1523 an attempt to force a grant from parliament met with no success, but a rebellion was provoked which was suppressed only by abandoning the demand.

1527. Henry, desiring to divorce his wife in order to marry Anne Boleyn, alleged the invalidity of marriage with a deceased brother's wife, and appealed to Rome. The delays of the Pope and the scruples of Wolsey enraged the king, who deprived the latter of

the great seal and gave it to Sir Thomas More (1529). Sentence and pardon of Wolsey, who, however, died in disgrace (1530). At the suggestion of Cranmer the question was referred to the universities of England and Europe, and a number deciding in the king's favor Henry married Anne Boleyn. Henry also broke with the Church of Rome. Confiscation of the annates, followed by the resignation of Sir Thomas More (1532).

The Pope excommunicated Henry and annulled his divorce from Catharine, which Cranmer, now archbishop of Canterbury, had pronounced. After the birth of Elizabeth parliament confirmed the divorce, recognized Elizabeth as heir to the throne (1534), and secured the succession to other children of Anne in case of the death of the princess.

1534. Act of Supremacy, appointing the king and his successors "Protector and only Supreme Head of the Church and Clergy of England" (1531). Refusal to take the oath of supremacy was made high treason, under which vote Sir Thomas More was condemned and beheaded (1535).

Thomas Cromwell, a former servant of Wolsey, and his successor in the favor of the king, now vicegerent in matters relating to the church in England, issued a commission for the inspection of monasteries which resulted in the suppression, first of the smaller (1536), and afterwards (1539) of the larger monasteries, and the confiscation of their property. Abbots now ceased to sit in parliament.

1536. Execution of Anne Boleyn on a charge of adultery. Princess Elizabeth proclaimed illegitimate by parliament. The crown was secured to any subsequent issue of the king, or should that fail, was left to his disposal.

1536. Publication of Tyndale's translation of the Bible, by Coverdale,

under authority from the king.

1536. Suppression of the Catholic rebellion of Robert Aske, aided by Reginald Pole, son of Margaret, countess of Salisbury, daughter of George, duke of Clarence.

1539. Statute of the Six Articles, defining heresy; denial of any of these positions constituted heresy: 1. Transubstantiation; 2. Communion in one kind for laymen; 3. Celibacy of the priesthood; 4. Inviolability of vows of chastity; 5. Necessity of private masses; 6. Necessity of auricular confession.

1540. Execution of Cromwell, on a charge of treason. Cromwell had fallen under Henry's displeasure by his advocacy of the king's marriage with Anne of Cleves, with whom the king was

ill pleased.

1542. Ireland made a kingdom.

1542. War with Scotland. James V. defeated at the

Nov. 25. Battle of Solway Moss.

James V. died shortly afterward. Henry proposed a marriage between his son, Edward, and James's infant daughter, Mary, but the Scottish court preferred an alliance with France, whereupon Henry concluded an alliance with the emperor.

1544. Parliament recognized Mary and Elizabeth as heirs to the crown in the event of the death of Edward without issue.

1545. Invasion of France, ending in a quarrel with the emperor.

1547. Execution of the Earl of Surrey, on charge of high treason.

Henry VIII. died Jan. 28, 1547, leaving a will, wherein the crown was left to the heirs of his sister, Mary, duchess of Suffolk, in the event of failure of issue by all of his children.

1547-1553. Edward VI.,

ten years of age; his uncle, earl of Hertford, was appointed lord protector and duke of Somerset, and assumed the government. Repeal of the six articles (1547). Introduction of reformed doctrines.

1549. Execution of lord Seymour, brother of the duke of Somerset, who wished to marry the princess Elizabeth.

Establishment of uniformity of service by a

Establishment of uniformity of service by act of parliament; introduction of Edward VI.'s first prayer-book (second, 1553).

Fall of the protector, Somerset, who was superseded by lord Warwick, afterwards duke of Northumberland (1550). Execution of Somerset (1552).

1551. Forty-two articles of religion published by Cranmer.

1553. Edward assigned the crown to Lady Jane Grey, daughter of his cousin, Frances Grey, eldest daughter of Mary, daughter of Henry VII., to the exclusion of Mary and Elizabeth, daughters of Henry VIII. Lady Jane was married to the son of the duke of Suffolk. Death of Edward VI., July 6, 1553.

1553-1558. Mary the Catholic.

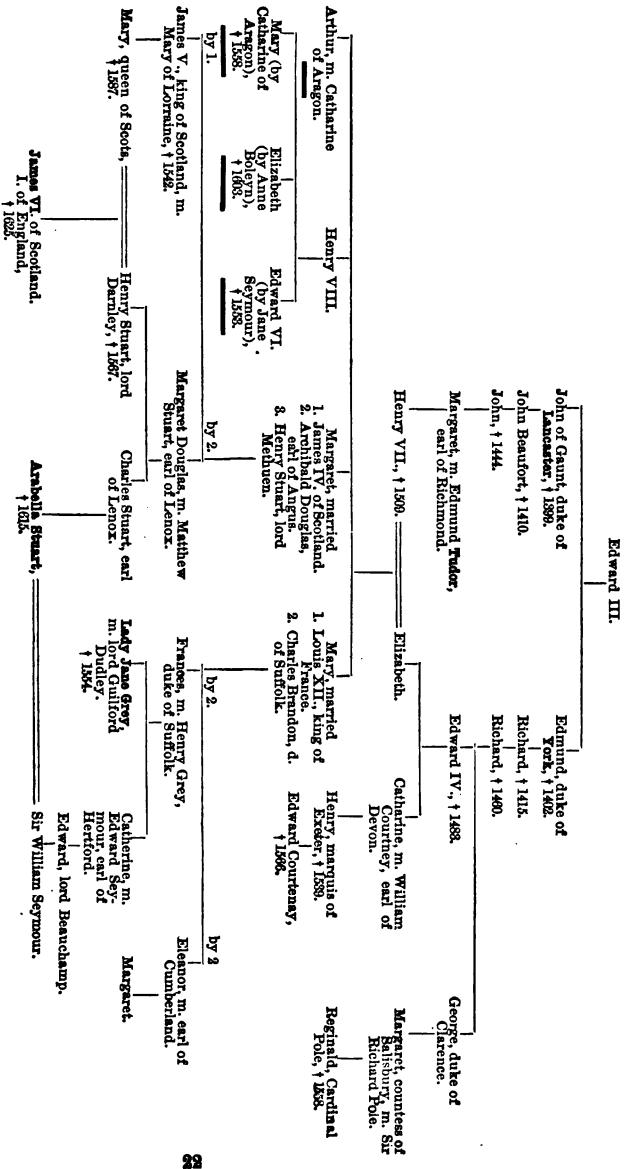
The proclamation of Lady Jane Grey as queen by Northumberland meeting with no response, Northumberland, Lady Jane, and others were arrested. Execution of Northumberland (Aug. 22, 1553). Restoration of Catholic bishops. Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, author of the Six Articles, lord chancellor.

Charles V., afterwards Philip II. Philip was to have the ti of king of England, but no hand in the government, and in case Mary's death could not succeed her. This transaction ("The Span marriage") being unpopular an insurrection broke out, headed by Thomas Carew, the duke of Suffolk, and Sir Thomas Wyatt. The supression of the rebellion was followed by the execution of Lady Jac Grey (Feb. 12, 1554), and her husband. Lady Jane was an a complished scholar (Roger Ascham) and had no desire for the crown Imprisonment of Elizabeth who was soon released on the intercession of the emperor.

1554, July 25. Marriage of Mary and Philip.

1555. Cruel persecution of the Protestants (Bonner, bishop of Lon-

SUCCESSION TO THE ENGLISH CROWN, 1553-1603.



don). Oct. 16, Ridley and Latimer; March 21, 1556, Cranmer burnt at the stake. About 300 are said to have been burnt during this persecution. Cardinal Pole, archbishop of Canterbury and papal legate (1556).

1557. England drawn into the Spanish war with France. Defeat of the French at the Battle of St. Quentin (Aug. 10, 1557).

1558, Jan. 7. Loss of Calais, which was captured by the duke of Guise.

Death of Mary, Nov. 17, 1558.

1558-1603. Elizabeth.

Sir William Cecil (baron Burleigh, 1571), secretary of state. Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord privy seal. Repeal of the Catholic legislation of Mary; reënactment of the laws of Henry VIII. relating to the church; act of supremacy, act of uniformity. Revision of the prayer-book.

1559. Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis with France. Calais to be

April 2. ceded to England in eight years.

On the accession of Francis II. king of France, Mary, his wife, assumed the title of Queen of England and Scotland. Conformity exacted in Scotland. Treaty of Berwick (Jan. 1560), between Elizabeth and the Scotlish reformers.

1560. Treaty of Edinburgh between England, France, and Scotland. July 6. French interference in Scotland withdrawn. Adoption of a Confession of Faith by the Scotch estates.

1561. Return of Mary to Scotland after the death of Francis II., where she was at once involved in conflict with the Calvinists. (John Knox, b. 1505, the friend of Calvin at Geneva, d. 1572.)

1563. Adoption of the Thirty-Nine Articles, in place of the forty-two published by Cranmer. Completion of the establishment of the Anglican Church (Church of England, Episcopal Church); Protestant dogmas, with retention of the Catholic hierarchy and, partially, of the cult. Numerous dissenters or non-conformists (Presbyterians, Puritans, Brownists, Separatists, etc.). Parker, archbishop of Canterbury (1559).

1564. Peace of Troyes with France. English claims to Calais renounced for 220,000 crowns.

In Scotland Mary married her cousin Darnley, who caused her favorite Rizzio to be murdered (1566) and was himself murdered (Feb. 10, 1567) by Bothwell (earl of Hepburn), apparently with the knowledge of the queen. Marriage of Mary and Bothwell May 15, 1567. The nobles under Murray, Mary's natural brother, revolted, defeated Mary at Carbury Hill near Edinburgh, and imprisoned her at Lochleven Castle. Abdication of Mary in favor of her son, James VI., July 24, 1567. Murray, regent. In May, 1568, Mary escaped from captivity; defeated at Langside, May 13, she took refuge in England, where, after some delay, she was placed in confinement (1568).

¹ Gaedeke, Maria Stuart, 1879. The cause of Mary and Bothwell has been recently defended by John Watts De Peyster.

1575. Elizabeth declined the government of the Netherland provinces of *Holland* and *Zealand*, offered her by the confederates.

1577. Alliance of Elizabeth and the Netherlands.

1583-84. Plots against the queen. (Arden, Parry); Spanish plot of Throgmorton; execution of the earl of Arundel for corresponding with Mary. Bond of Association.

1585. Troops sent to the aid of the Dutch republic under the earl of Leicester. Victory of Zutphen (Sept. 22, 1586), death of Sir

Philip Sidney.

1586. Expedition of Sir Francis Drake to the West Indies, sack of St. Domingo and Carthagena; rescue of the Virginia colony

(p. 290).

- 1586. Conspiracy of Savage, Ballard, Babington, etc., discovered by the secretary of state, Walsingham; execution of the conspirators. The government involved Mary, queen of Scots, in the plot. She was tried at Fotheringay Castle, Oct. 1586, and convicted on the presentation of letters which she alleged to be forged. She was convicted Oct. 25 and executed Feb. 8, 1587.
- 1588. War with Spain. Construction of an English fleet of war. The Spanish fleet, called the invincible armada (132 vessels, 3,165 cannon), was defeated in the Channel by the English fleet (Howard, Drake, Hawkins), July 21-29, and destroyed by a storm off the Hebrides.
- 1597. Rebellion of the Irish under Hugh O'Neill, earl of Tyrone; the failure of the earl of Essex to cope with the insurrection led to his recall, and his successor lord Mountjoy quickly subjugated the country (1601). Capture of Tyrone, flight of the earl of Desmond. A rebellion of Essex in London was followed by his execution (1601).

1600. Charter of the East India Company. Death of Elizabeth,

March 24, 1603.

William Shakespeare, 1564–1616; Sir Philip Sidney, 1554–1586; Edmund Spenser, 1553–1599; William Tyndale, 1485?–1536; Ben Jonson, 1574–1637.

1603-1649 (1714). The House of Stuart. Personal Union of England and Scotland.

1603–1625. James I.,

as king of Scotland, James VI., son of Mary Stuart. The Scotch had brought him up in the Protestant faith. He was learned but pedantic, weak, lazy, and incapable of governing a large kingdom. Divine right of kingship, divine right of the bishops ("no bishop, no king"). In this century the after-effects of the Reformation made themselves felt in England as on the continent, and in both places resulted in war. In England, however, owing to the peculiar circumstances of the Reformation these effects were peculiarly conditioned; the religious questions were confused, and overshadowed by political and constitutional questions.

1603. James I. was proclaimed king March 24; he entered London

on the 7th of May, and was crowned July 25. Presentation of the millenary petition immediately after James's arrival in London, signed by 1,000 (800) ministers, asking for the reform of abuses.

The Main and the Bye. The "Main" was a plot to dethrone James in favor of Arabella Stuart (see geneal. table, p. 337), concocted by lord Cobham, Grey and others. Sir Walter Raleigh was also implicated and imprisoned until 1616 ("History of the World"). The "Bye" or the "Surprising treason" was a plot to imprison the king. Alliance with France, negotiated by Rosny (Sully).

1604. Jan. Hampton Court Conference between the bishops and the Puritans, where James presided. The Puritans failed to obtain any relaxation of the rules and orders of the church. The king issued a proclamation enforcing the act of uniformity (p. 338), and one banishing Jesuits and seminary priests (Goodwin and Fortescue).

1604, March 19-1611, Feb. 9. First Parliament of James I.

The king's scheme of a real union of England and Scotland unfavorably received. Appointment of a commission to investigate the matter.

1604. Convocation (ecclesiastical court and legislature at first established [Edward I.] as an instrument for ecclesiastical taxation; afterwards convened by archbishops for the settlement of church questions; since Henry VIII. convened only by writ from the king, and sitting and enacting [canons] only by permission of the king) adopted some new canons which bore so hardly upon the Puritans that three hundred clergymen left their livings rather than conform.

Peace with Spain. James proclaimed "King of Great Britain, France and Ireland" (Oct. 24). Punishment of many recusants (under the recusancy laws of Elizabeth, whereby refusing to go to church, saying mass or assisting at mass was severely punished).

1605. Nov. 5. Gunpowder Plot,

originating in 1604 with Robert Catesby, after the edict banishing the priests. Other conspirators: Winter, Wright, Percy. Preparations for blowing up the houses of Parliament with thirty-six barrels of gunpowder. Disclosure of the plot through an anonymous letter to Lord Monteagle from one of the conspirators, his brother-in-law, Tresham. Arrest of Guy (Guido) Fawkes, in the vaults on Nov. 4, the day before the meeting of parliament. Trial and execution of the conspirators. Parliament met Nov. 9.

1606. Penal laws against papists. Plague in London. Episco-pacy restored in Scotland. James urged the union anew but in vain.

Impositions. The grant of customs duties made at the beginning of every reign (tonnage and poundage, established by Edward III.) proving insufficient to meet James' expenditure, he had recourse to impositions without parliamentary grant, which Mary and Elizabeth had used to a small extent. Trial of Bates for refusing to pay an imposition on currants. The court of exchequer decided in favor of the king.

1607. Settlement of Jamestown (p. 291).

1608. Establishment of new impositions.

1610. The Great Contract; in return for the surrender of some feudal privileges the king was to receive a yearly income of £200,000. The agreement was frustrated by a dispute over the impositions. Dissolution of parliament (Feb. 9, 1611).

1611. Plantation of Ulster, which was forfeited to the crown by the

rebellion of Tyrone.

Creation of baronets, an hereditary knighthood; sale of the patents.

1611. Completion of the translation of the Bible, which was authorized by the king and had occupied forty-seven ministers since 1604.

Imprisonment of Arabella Stuart.

1613. Robert Carr, the king's favorite (viscount Rochester in 1611), created duke of Somerset, and lord treasurer, on the death of the earl of Salisbury (Robert Cecil). Death of Henry, prince of Wales (Nov. 1612). First English factory at Surat.

1613. Marriage of the princess Elizabeth ("queen of Bohemia") to the elector palatine. Death of Sir Thomas Overbury, who was imprisoned in the Tower by the malice of Somerset. Mar-

riage of Somerset and the countess of Essex.

1614, Apr. 5-June 7. Second parliament of James I. Three hundred new members, among whom were John Pym (Somersetshire), Thomas Wentworth (Yorkshire), John Eliot (St. Germains). The whole session was spent in quarrelling with the king over the impositions, and parliament was dissolved without making an enactment, whence it is called the addled parliament.

1615. Renewal of the negotiation for the marriage of James's son to a Spanish princess (opened in 1611). Imposition of a benevolence, which was resisted by Oliver St. John and condemned by the chief justice, Sir Edward Coke, who was afterwards dismissed from office. Death of Arabella Stuart. Mission of

Sir Thomas Roe to the Great Mogul.

1616. Condemnation of the duke and duchess of Somerset for the poisoning of Overbury. Rise of George Villiers in the king's favor; viscount Villiers, earl, marquis, duke of Buckingham.

1617. Sir Walter Raleigh, released from the Tower, allowed to sail for the Orinoco, where he hoped to discover a gold mine. Failing in this he attacked the Spanish towns on the Orinoco.

- 1618. Proclamation allowing sports on Sunday after church in Scotland (Articles of Perth). Francis Bacon, lord Verulam, viscount of St. Albans, lord chancellor. In this year Sir Walter Raleigh, returning from his expedition, was executed under the old sentence, as reparation to Spain.
- 1619. Commercial treaty with the Dutch respecting the East Indies.
- 1620. Settlement of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, in New England (p. 294).
- 1621, Jan. 30-1622, Feb. 8. Third Parliament of James I. The parliament granted a supply for the prosecution of the war in

the palatinate (p. 310), in which James was half-hearted, and then took up the subject of grievances. Impeachment of Mompeson and Mitchell, who had bought monopolies of inn-licensing and the manufacture of gold and silver thread; they were degraded, fined, and banished. Impeachment of Francis Bacon, the chancellor, for bribery. Bacon admitted that he had received presents from parties in suits, but denied that they had affected his judgment. He was fined £40,000 (which was remitted) and declared incapable of holding office in the future. Petition of the commons against popery and the Spanish marriage. The angry rebuke of the king for meddling in affairs of state ("bring stools for these ambassadors") drew from the parliament

1621, Dec. 18. The Great Protestation: "That the liberties, franchises, privileges, and jurisdictions of parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England, and that the arduous and urgent affairs concerning the king, state, and defense of the realm... are proper subjects and matter of council and debate in parliament." The king tore the page containing the protestation from the journal of the commons.

1622, Feb. 8. Dissolution of parliament.

Imprisonment of Southampton, Coke, Pym, Selden. Earl of

Buckingham made duke of Buckingham.

1623. Charles, prince of Wales, and the duke of Buckingham, went to Spain and negotiated a marriage treaty, the provisions of which were so favorable to the Catholics as to excite great dissatisfaction in England; finally, being unable to secure any help from Spain in regard to the palatinate, Charles and Buckingham returned in anger.

Massacre of English residents on the island of Amboyna by the

Dutch.

1624, Feb. 12–1625, Mar. 27. Fourth parliament of James I.

The Spanish marriage was broken off, but even the anger of Buckingham could not drive the parliament into a declaration of war with Spain. Supplies voted for defense. Mansfield raised 1,200 men in England who reached Holland but nearly all perished there from lack of proper provisions. Marriage treaty with France for the marriage of Prince Charles with Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII.

1625, March 27, death of James I. at Theobalds.

1625-1649. Charles I.

1625, May 11. Marriage of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria.
Ships sent to Louis XIII. secretly engaged not to fight against the Huguenots.

1625. First Parliament of Charles I.

(Assembled June 18; adjourned to Oxford July 11; dissolved

Aug. 12.)

Grant of tonnage and poundage for one year only, and of £140,000 for the war with Spain. Proceedings against Montague ("appello Cæsarem," 1624). Unsuccessful expedition of Wimbledon against Cadiz.

1626, Feb. 6-June 15. Second Parliament of Charles I.

Charles had hoped for a more pliable parliament, as he had appointed several of the leaders of the first parliament sheriffs, and so kept them out of the second. But this parliament, under the lead of Sir John Eliot, was more intractable than the last. Lord Bristol, to whom no writ had been sent by order of the king, received one on the interference of the lords, but was requested not to appear. He took his seat and brought charges against Buckingham, on which that lord was impeached (May). Imprisonment of Sir John Eliot and Sir Dudley Digges, who were set at liberty upon the refusal of parliament to proceed to business without them.

War declared against France (1626–1630).

1627. Inglorious expedition of Buckingham to the relief of Rochelle

(Isle of Rhé).

Exaction of a forced loan to raise money for the French war, and for the subsidy which Charles had agreed to supply to Christian IV. of Denmark. Five persons, who were imprisoned for refusing to contribute, appealed for a writ of habeas corpus, but, as no distinct charge had been made against them, they failed to obtain it.

- 1628, March 17-1629, March 10. Third parliament of Charles I.
- May. Passage of the Petition of Right: 1. Prohibition of benevolences, and all forms of taxation without consent of parliament.

 2. Soldiers should not be billeted in private houses. 3. No commission should be given to military officers to execute martial law in time of peace. 4. No one should be imprisoned unless upon a specified charge. Assent of the king (June 7). Grant of five subsidies. Suppression of the royalistic sermons of Mainwaring.

Charles having, after the first year of his reign, continued to levy tonnage and poundage, the commons drew up a remonstrance

against that practice.

June 26. Prorogation of parliament.

Seizure of goods of merchants who refused to pay tonnage and poundage.

Aug. 23. Assassination of Buckingham by Felton.

1629, Jan. New session of parliament. Oliver Cromwell spoke, for the first time, in this parliament. The commons at once took up the question of tonnage and poundage; claim of privilege in the case of Rolfe, one of the merchants, whose goods had been seized, and who was a member of parliament. Adjournment of the house of commons.

March 2. Meeting of parliament. Turbulent scene in the house of commons; the speaker held in the chair while the resolutions of Eliot were read: Whoever introduced innovations in religion, or opinions disagreeing with those of the true church; whoever advised the levy of tonnage and poundage without grant of parliament; whoever voluntarily paid such duties,

was an enemy of the kingdom.

March 5. Arrest of members; imprisonment of *Eliot* († Nov. 1632). March 10. Dissolution of parliament. For eleven years Charles governed without a parliament, raising money by illegal levies of taxes, sale of monopolies, and many other ways.

Charles' advisers: William Laud (b. 1573, president of St. John's college, 1611–1621; dean of Gloucester, 1616; in Scotland as James I.'s chaplain, 1617; bishop of St. David's, 1621; chaplain to Buckingham, 1622; bishop of Bath and Wells, dean of the chapel royal, 1626; privy councillor, 1627; bishop of London, 1628; chancellor of Oxford, 1630; in Scotland with Charles I., 1633; archbishop of Canterbury, 1633; commissioner of the treasury, 1634; impeached, 1641; attainted (by bill) and executed, 1645), Thomas Wentworth (b. 1593; in parliament, 1614, 1621–1625; sheriff, 1625; imprisoned for refusing to comply with the forced loan; in parliament, 1628; baron Wentworth, lord president of the council of the north, viscount Wentworth, 1628; privy councillor, 1629; lord deputy of Ireland, 1633; went to Ireland, 1633; earl of Strafford, and lord lieutenant of Ireland, 1639; impeached, 1640; attainted (by bill) and executed, May, 1641), Weston, lord treasurer.

1630, April. Peace with France.

1629. First charter of Massachusetts Bay Colony (p. 295).

1630, Nov. Peace with Spain.

1632. Predominant influence of Wentworth.

1633, June. Charles crowned at Edinburgh with ceremonies distasteful to the Scots.

Government of Laud and Wentworth. Energetic enforcement of conformity. The declaration of sports (p. 341) reissued. Inrailment of the communion table. William Prynne, author of Histrio-Mastix, an attack on players, which was thought to reflect on the queen, pilloried and deprived of his ears. Wentworth, governor of Ireland. "Thorough."

1634. First writ for ship-money, a war tax levied only on seaboard towns, issued at the suggestion of Noy, attorney-general, and

extended over the whole kingdom. Second writ for ship-money.

1635. Second writ for ship-money. 1637. Prynne, Bastwick, Burton, pilloried.

June 23. An attempt to read the English liturgy in Edinburgh, in compliance with the order of Charles, produced a popular tumult at St. Giles.

June. Trial of John Hampden, for refusing to pay his allotment of ship-money (twenty shillings). The court of exchequer decided against him, which created a strong popular excitement. Shortly after, Hampden, Pym, Cromwell, were prevented from sailing for America by a royal prohibition of emigration.

1638, Feb. 28. Signing of the Solemn League and Covenant (based on that of 1580), at Greyfriar's church in Edinburgh, for the defense of the reformed religion and resistance to inno-

vations.

1638, Nov. 21. General assembly at Glasgow; abolition of episcopacy, the new liturgy, and the canons; the kirk declared independent of the state.

1639. The first bishops' war.

The Scots seized Edinburgh castle, and raised an army. Charles marched to meet them near *Berwick*, but an agreement was reached without a battle.

1639, June 18. Pacification of Dunse (or Berwick). The armies were to be disbanded, and differences referred to a new general assembly and parliament. The general assembly at Edinburgh confirmed the acts of the assembly of Glasgow, and the parliament proved intractable. The king's necessities were now so great that he took the advice of Wentworth, now made earl of Strafford, and summoned

1640, April 13-May 5. The fourth parliament of Charles I. ("The Short Parliament") at Westminster.

As no supplies could be obtained without a redress of grievances, the parliament was soon dissolved. Popular tumults; attack on Laud's palace; assault upon the court of high commission (created 1559, by Elizabeth, to try offenses against the ecclesiastical supremacy of the crown).

1640. Second bishops' war.

Defeat of the royal troops at Newburn on the Tyne (Aug. 28). The king summoned a council of peers at York (Sept.). Treaty of Ripon (Oct. 26). A permanent treaty was set in prospect; meanwhile the Scottish army was to be paid £850 a day by Charles. Acting upon the advice of the peers, Charles now summoned

1640, Nov. 3. The Fifth and last Parliament.

The Long Parliament (Nov. 3, 1640-March 16, 1660). First Session.

Nov. 3, 1640-Sept. 8, 1641.

The fact that the Scotch army was not to be disbanded until paid, gave the commons an extraordinary power over the king, which they were not slow to use. Lenthall, speaker.

Nov. 11. Impeachment of the earl of Strafford, followed by the impeachment of Laud. Both were committed to the Tower.

1641, Feb. 15. The triennial act passed, enacting that parliament should assemble every three years even without being summoned by the king.

March 22. Commencement of the trial of Strafford. The result of the *impeachment* being uncertain, it was dropped and a bill of attainder introduced, which passed both houses (commons, Apr. 21, lords, Apr. 29).

Bill to prevent clergymen from holding civil office introduced but thrown out by the lords (June). Introduction of a bill for

the abolition of bishops ("Root and branch bill").

May 10. Charles with great reluctance signed the bill of attainder against Strafford, and also the bill to prevent the dissolution or proroguing of the present parliament without its own consent. (" Act for the perpetual Parliament.")

1641, May 12. Execution of Strafford.

July. Abolition of the Star Chamber and the High Commission.

Aug. Treaty of pacification with Scotland. The Scotch and English armies were paid with the proceeds of a poll-tax. Charles went to Scotland. First interview of Edward Hyde, lord Clarendon (1609–1674; "History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England)," with the king.

Sept. 8. Parliament adjourned, but each house appointed a committee to sit during the recess; Pym chairman of the commons'

committee.

Attempt of the king to conciliate the "moderates" in parliament by giving offices of state to their leaders (Lucius Cary,

lord Falkland).

Oct. In Scotland the marquis of Montrose formed a plot for the seizure of the duke of Argyle, the leader of the Presbyterians, in which the king was thought to have a share. The discovery of the plot ("the incident") threw Charles into the hands of Argyle, and an agreement was concluded whereby Charles gave the state offices to Argyle and his party, and the latter agreed not to interfere in the religious affairs in England.

Oct. 20. Parliament assembled. Early in Nov. came news of the Irish massacre in Ulster; the lowest estimate of the number of Protestants slain was 30,000. Great indignation in England. Yet the parliament was unwilling to trust Charles with an

army.

1641, Dec. 1. The grand remonstrance, which had passed the house of commons in November, after a long and exciting debate, by a majority of eleven, presented to the king. It was a summary of all the grievances of his reign. On Dec. 14 the remonstrance was ordered to be printed.

Several of the bishops having declared their inability to attend parliament on account of the conduct of the mob, and protested against the action of parliament in their absence, they were committed to the Tower for breach of privilege (Dec. 30). The petition of the commons for a guard under the earl of

Essex rejected by the king.

1642, Jan. 3. Impeachment of lord Kimbolton, and of Pym, Hampden, Haselrig, Holles, Strode, members of the commons, for treasonable correspondence with the Scots in the recent war. As the commons declined to order their arrest Charles resolved to take matters into his own hands.

Jan. 4. Attempt to seize the five members.

Charles visited the house of commons in person, with five hundred troops, but finding that the five members were absent he withdrew quietly. The accused members, meanwhile, were in London. The commons immediately followed them, and formed themselves into a committee which sat at the Guildhall, under the protection of the citizens.

Jan. 10. Charles left London. The five members returned to parliament on the following day. Jan. 12, rising at Kingston. The freeholders of Buckinghamshire sent a remonstrance to the king. The commons made sure of several places and hastened to lay before the king a bill excluding the bishops from the house of Lords, which he signed, and a bill securing to the parliament the command of the militia, which he refused to sign. Charles at York (March), where he was joined in April by thirty-two peers and sixty-five members of the lower house. The king also obtained the great seal. Attempt on Hull.

Henceforward the parliament at Westminster passed ordinances which were not submitted to the king. By an ordinance passed.

in May they assumed control of the militia.

June 2. Submission of nineteen propositions by parliament to the king, demanding that the king should give his assent to the militia bill; that all fortified places should be entrusted to officers appointed by parliament; that the liturgy and church government should be reformed in accordance with the wishes of parliament; that parliament should appoint and dismiss all royal ministers, appoint guardians for the king's children, and have the power of excluding from the upper house at will all peers created after that date. The propositions were indignantly rejected.

July. Appointment of a committee of public safety by parliament. Essex appointed captain-general of an army of 20,000 foot and

4000 cavalry. Siege of Portsmouth.

Aug. 22. Charles raised the royal standard at Nottingham.

1642-1646. The civil war; the Great Rebellion.

Oct. 23. Drawn battle of *Edgehill*. (Prince Rupert, son of the elector palatine and Elizabeth of England.) The king marched upon London, but being confronted at *Brentford* by Essex and

Nov. 12. the trained bands of London under Skippon, he retired

without fighting. "Affair of Brentford."

Dec. The associated counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Cambridge, Hertfordshire, and Huntingdonshire raised a force which was entrusted to Oliver Cromwell (born April 25, 1599 in Huntingdon), who made them a model band, "the Ironsides."

1643, Feb.-Apr. Fruitless negotiations at Oxford, followed by a renewal of the war. In Feb. the queen landed in Yorkshire,

bringing assistance from Holland.

Apr. 27. Capture of Reading by Essex.

May. Royalist rising in Cornwall; defeat of the parliament at Stratton Hill (May 16). Defeat of Waller at Lansdowne Hill, and at Roundway Down (July).

e 18. Hampden wounded in a skirmish with Rupert at Chal-

grove field, † June 24.

July 1. Westminster assembly (continued until 1649), for the settlement of religious and theological matters.

July 25. Capture of Bristol (the second city in the kingdom) by Rupert. Discouragement of the supporters of the parliament.

Sept. Essex relieved Gloucester, which was gallantly defended by Massey.

1643, Sept. 20. First battle of Newbury. Death of lord Falkland. Sept. 25. Signature of the Solemn League and Covenant by twenty-five peers and 288 members of the commons. Parliament thus agreed to make the religions of England, Ireland, and Scotland as nearly uniform as possible, and to reform religion "according to the word of God, and the example of the best reformed churches." All civil and military officers and all beneficed clergymen were compelled to sign the covenant (nearly 2000 clergymen were thus deprived of their livings). Thus the assistance of the Scots was secured.

Sept. Charles concluded peace with the Irish insurgents, and took the fatal step of enlisting a force from their numbers for the

war in England.

Dec. 8. Death of Pym.

1644. Jan. A Scotch army crossed the Tweed. Parliament convened at Oxford by the king.

Jan. 25. Battle of Nantwich. Defeat of the Irish by Sir Thomas Fairfax.

Feb. 15. Joint committee of the two kingdoms.

March. Trial of Laud.

York besieged by Fairfax and the Scots. Siege of Oxford by Essex and Waller. Siege of Latham House (countess of Derby) raised by Rupert (May).

July 2. Battle of Marston Moor.

Prince Rupert, who defeated the Scots, was in turn totally defeated by Cromwell at the head of his picked troops (Ironsides).

Hitherto the king had held the west and north of England, while the parliament was supreme in the east. This victory gave the north to parliament. Surrender of York July 16, of Newcastle Oct 20. This success was partially offset in the south by the defeat of Waller at the

June 29. Battle of Copredy Bridge, and by the

Sept. Surrender of Essex's infantry in Cornwall to Charles. Essex escaped to London by sea.

1644, Aug.-1645, Sept. Campaign of Montrose in Scotland.

Montrose entered Scotland in disguise, Aug. 1644. Victory of Tippamuir Sept. 1; sack of Aberdeen (Bridge of Dee) Sept. 13; capture of Perth; Montrose retired to Athole (Oct. 4); Fyrie castle (Oct. 14); Montrose retired to Badenach (Nov. 6); harrying of Argyleshire (Dec.—Jan. 18); march from Loch Ness to Inverlochy at Ben Nevis (Jan. 31—Feb. 1). Battle of Inverlochy, Feb. 2. Surrender of Elgin, Feb. 19. Montrose at Aberdeen (March 9); Stonehaven (March 21). Victory of Auldcarn (May 4); victory of Alford (July 2); of Kilsyth (Aug. 15); court at Bothwell (Sept. 3); Kelso (Sept. 10); Leslie crossed the Tweed (Sept. 6). Defeat of Montrose at Philiphaugh (Sept. 13).

1644, Oct. 27. Second battle of Newbury fought between the king

and Essex, Waller, and Manchester.

Dec. Promulgation of a directory instead of a liturgy. Christmas made a fast.

1645. Jan. Attainder and execution (Jan. 10) of Laud.

1646, Jan.-Feb. Truce known as the treaty of Uxbridge; the pro-

posals of the parliament rejected by the king.

Dissensions within the parliament. Rise of the sect of independents (advocates of religious liberty) who formed a growing opposition to the Presbyterians. Cromwell fast becoming the leading man in England since the victory of Marston Moor. Quarrel with Manchester.

April 3. The Self-denying Ordinance passed by both houses (the commons had passed a similar bill Dec. 1644) preventing members of either house from holding military command. Establishment of Presbyterianism, with some reservations in favor of the independents.

Fairfax superseded Essex as captain-general. Cromwell, lieutenant-general (suspension of the self-denying ordinance

in his case).

Introduction of reform in the army after the plans of Cromwell; the new model.

June 14. Battle of Naseby.

Complete defeat of the king, followed by the general ruin of his cause. Capture of his private letters. Surrender of Leicester (June 18), Bridgewater (July 23), Bristol (Sept. 11), Carlisle, Winchester, Basing House (Oct.), Latham House (Dec.).

March 26. Defeat and capture of lord Ashley at Stow-on-the-Wold;

last battle of the civil war.

1646, May 5. Charles surrendered himself to the Scots.

July 24. Parliamentary propositions submitted to Charles at Newcastle. Parliament to have control of the militia for twenty years; Charles to take the covenant and support the Presbyterian establishment. Charles rejected the propositions, preferring to await the result of the impending breach between parliament, representing Presbyterianism, and the army, comprising the independents. The independent opposition, the "toleration" party in parliament, grew constantly in strength.

1647, Jan. 30. The Scots surrendered Charles to the parliament on payment of the expenses of their army (£400,000). Charles

was brought to Holmby House in Northamptonshire.

Contention between parliament and the army. The commons voted the disbandment of all soldiers not needed for garrison purposes or in Ireland. Fairfax appointed commander-inchief. The self-denying ordinance re-enacted. The new model, however, refused to disband until its claims for arrears were satisfied.

May 12. Charles accepted a modified form of the parliamentary

propositions. It was too late.

June 4. Charles seized at Holmby House by count Joyce and carried to the army. On the same day Cromwell, having heard of the intention of the Presbyterians to seize him in parliament, fled to the army at Triptow Heath. Here the army had taken an oath not to disband until liberty of conscience was secure, and

had adopted a new organization; appointment to a council of adjudicators.

1647, June 10. The army at St. Albans. "Humble representation"

addressed to parliament.

June 16. The army demanded the exclusion from parliament of eleven members who were peculiarly obnoxious to it (Holles).

July 26. The house of commons mobbed by London apprentices on account of a change in the commanders of the London militia which the army had requested.

The two speakers, fourteen lords, and one hundred commons

fled to the army.

- July 24. Proposals presented to the king by the army. Belief and worship should be free to all; parliament to control the military and naval forces for ten years, and to appoint officers of state; triennial parliament; reformation of the house of commons, etc., rejected by the king, who was invited to London by that part of the parliament still sitting at Westminster.
- Aug. 6. The army entered London and restored the members which had taken refuge with it. Charles removed to Hampton Court.
- Sept. 7. Parliament again offered Charles a modified form of the nineteen propositions; on its rejection a new draft was prepared, but before its presentation

Nov. 11. Charles escaped to the Isle of Wight, where he was detained

by the governor of Carisbrooke Castle.

Dec. 24. "The four bills" presented to the king by parliament: 1. Parliament to command the army for twenty years; 2. All declarations and proclamations against the parliament to be recalled; 3. All peers created since the great seal was sent to Charles to be incapable of sitting in the house; 4. The two houses should adjourn at pleasure. Charles, who was only playing with the parliament in the hope of securing aid from Scotland, rejected the four bills (Dec. 28), after he had already signed

Dec. 26. A secret treaty with the Scots ("The Engagement"). Charles agreed to abolish Episcopacy and restore Presbyterianism; the Scots, who looked with horror on the rising tide of toleration in England, agreed to restore him by force of

arms

1648. Jan. 15. Parliament renounced allegiance to the king, and voted to have no more communication with him.

1648. Second Civil War.

At once a war between Scotland and England, a war between the Royalists and the Roundheads, and a war between the Presbyterians and the Independents.

Committee of safety renewed, sitting at Derby House.

March. A meeting of army officers at Windsor resolved that the king must be brought to trial.

April 24. Call of the house. 306 members. The Presbyterians having returned to their seats, now regained control, and mani-

fested a desire to come to an agreement with the king. Virtual repeal of the non-communication resolution.

1648, May 2. Ordinance for suppression of blasphemies and heresies, aimed at the independents, especially at Cromwell, Ireton, etc.

July 20-29. Parliament resolved to open negotiations with the king.

Aug. 14. Holles resumed his seat.

Royalist outbreaks in Wales, Cornwall, Devon, Kent; riots in London.

- The duke of Hamilton led a Scotch army into England. July 25. Cromwell having suppressed the rising in Wales met the Scots in the
- Aug. 17-20. Three days' battle at Preston Pans, and annihilated their army.
- Aug. 28. Surrender of Colchester to Fairfax. End of the second civil war.
- Sept. 18-Nov. "Treaty of Newport" negotiated between the king and the parliament, without result.

Nov. 16. Grand remonstrance of the army.

Dec. 1. Charles seized by the army and carried to Hurst Castle. Dec. 4. The army entered London (19 peers, 232 commons).

Dec. 5. Parliament voted that the king's propositions formed a basis on which an agreement might be reached. This vote was the last straw; the army took matters into its own hands.

Dec. 6-7. Pride's Purge. Colonel Pride, by order of the council of officers, forcibly excluded the Presbyterian members (96) from the parliament.

The "Rump" Parliament (some 60 members).

Dec. 13. Repeal of the vote to proceed with the treaty. Vote that Charles should be brought to trial. The king conveyed to Windsor (Dec. 23).

1649, Jan. 1. Appointment of a high court of justice (135 members) to try the king; as this was rejected by the lords (Jan. 2) the

commons resolved

Jan. 4. That legislative power resided solely with the com-

Jan. 6. Passage of the ordinance without the concurrence of the lords.

Jan. 20. Agreement of the people, a form of government drawn up by the army.

Jan. 20-27. Trial of Charles I. before the high court (67 members present, Bradshaw presiding); the king merely denied the jurisdiction of the court. He was sentenced to death.

Jan. 30. Execution of Charles I. at Whitehall in London.

THE NORTH AND EAST.

The Union of the three Scandinavian kingdoms, weakened by the action of Sweden, since the election of

1448. Christian I. of Oldenburg, as king of the Union, was completely dissolved in consequence of the cruelties of Christian II.

1520. Massacre of Stockholm. Revolt of the Dalecarlians under the conduct of Gustavus Vasa (b. 1496, hostage in Denmark, 1518, fled to Dalecarlia, 1519, concealed himself under disguises and worked in the mines). He defeated the Danes, and became first administrator of the kingdom, then king (1523).

Sweden.

1523-1654. House of Vasa.

The throne made hereditary. Gustavus I. was succeeded by his eldest son Erik XIV., who, being insane, was deposed and murdered. His successor was the second son of Gustavus, John III., whose son Sigismund was Catholic, and king of Poland (1587), and hence displaced in Sweden by his uncle Charles IX. the youngest son of Gustavus I. Charles's son,

1611-1632. Gustavus II. Adolphus, conducted successful wars with Poland and Russia. For his participation in the Thirty Years' War and his death see p. 311. He was followed by his daughter

1632-1654. Christina, who was well educated, but averse to affairs of government. She abdicated in 1654 in favor of her cousin Charles Gustavus of Pfalz-Zweibrücken, son of a sister of Gustavus Adolphus. Christina became a Catholic and died at Rome, 1689.

Denmark and Norway.

These countries remained united. Under Christian II. the Reformation began to spread into Denmark. Christian was displaced by his uncle, the duke of Schleswig-Holstein, who ascended the Danish throne as

1523-1533. Frederic I. and favored the Reformation. After his death (1533), the so-called Feuds of the Counts (Jürgen Wullenwever, burghermaster of Lübeck). Frederic's son

1536-1559. Christian III. completed the introduction of the Reformation. For the participation of Christian IV. in the Thirty Years' War, see p. 310. After a

1643-1645. War with Sweden, Christian was obliged to surrender the islands of Gotland and Oesel at the Peace of Brömsebro (p. 315).

Poland.

1386-1572. Jagallons. The kingdom reached its greatest extent (Baltic, Carpathians, Black Sea), but already the germ of decay was forming in the privileges of the numerous nobility.

1572-1791. Poland an elective monarchy. Introduction of the liberum veto. Elected kings: Henry of Anjou (p. 322); Stephen Bathory of Transylvania, followed by three kings of the house of Vasa; Sigismund III., Vladislas IV., John Casimir (to 1668).

Russia.

After the extinction of the house of Rurik (1598), and a war of succession lasting ten years (the false Demetrius)

1613. The house of Romanow succeeded to the throne, which it occupied until 1762.

Turks.

The empire of the Ottoman Turks reached its highest development under Soliman II. (1520–1566), the Magnificent, the contemporary of the emperor Charles V. (p. 303). Under his successors began the decline, caused especially by the influence of the *Janizaries*.

India.

1497. Covilham reached Calicut by land from Portugal.

1498. Portuguese vessels under Vasco da Gama reached Calicut

by the way of the Cape of Good Hope.

The Muhammedan power which the sultans of Delhi under various dynasties had extended over almost all India, broke up in the latter half of the fourteenth and during the fifteenth century. When the Portuguese gained a foothold in the peninsula, its political constitution was as follows: At Delhi, Muhammedan sultans of the Afghan dynasty with greatly reduced dominion; in Bengal (1340–1576), Afghan (Muhammedan) kings; in Guzerat (1391–1573) a Muhammedan dynasty had its capital at Ahmedábád; in the Deccan the Muhammedan empire of the Bahmaní (1347–1525) had separated into five kingdoms: Bijápur (1489–1686), Golconda (1512–1687), Ahmednagar (1490–1636), Ellichpur (1484–1572), Bídar (1492–1609[57]. The southern part of the peninsula was still in the hands of the powerful Hindu kingdom, Vijayanagar (1118–1565).

Da Gama was followed in 1500 by Cabral (on the voyage acciden-

Da Gama was followed in 1500 by Cabral (on the voyage accidental (?) discovery of Brazil); in 1502 a papal bull created the king of Portugal "Lord of the navigation, conquests, and trade of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India." First Portuguese governor and viceroy of India, Almeida (1505). In 1509 Alfonso d'Albuquerque was ap-

pointed to this office; capture of Goa (1510), and of Malacca.

1526-1761 (1857). Mughal (Mogul) Empire in India.

The founder of the Mughal empire was Babar, a descendant of Tamerlane (1494 king of Ferghána on the Jaxartes, 1497 conqueror of Samarkand, seized Kábul, 1504), who in 1526 invaded the Punjab and defeated the sultan of Delhi in the

1526. Battle of Panipat.¹

Defeat of the Rajputs of Chittor (1527). Under Bábar's son Humáyún (1530-56) the Mughals were driven from India by Sher Sháh, the Afghan ruler of Bengal; but they returned in 1556 and under Humáyún's son Akbar (Bairám the real commander), defeated the Afghans at Panipat (1556).

1556-1605. Akbar the Great

whose reign is a long series of conquests.

1 The first of the three great battles which decided the fate of India on that same plain; viz. in 1526, 1556, 1761. (Hunter, Indian Empire, p. 234.)

1565. Battle of Talikot.

Destruction of the Hindoo empire of Vijayanagar by a union of

the Muhammedan kingdoms of the Deccan.

Conquests of Akbar: 1561-68, Rajputs of Jaipur, Jodhpur, Chillor; 1572-73, Guzerat (revolted 1581, reconquered 1593); 1586-92 Kashmír; 1592, Sind; 1594, Kandahár, Akbar's empire now comprised all India north of the Vindhyar Mts.; in the Deccan he was not successful. Akbar organized the administration, reformed the military and financial system, and conciliated the Hindus. Akbar was succeeded by his son Salim, Jahangir (1605-27). His reign was much troubled by rebellions, and his wars in the Deccan were without lasting success. Shah Jahan (1628-1658). Kandahár, several times lost and recovered between the Mughals and the Persians, was finally lost by the Mughal empire, 1653. Shah Jahán won some successes in the Deccan; submission of Bijápur, Golconda, Ahmednagar. The empire was at the height of its power and magnificence (peacock throne). Shah Jahán deposed by his son Aurangzeb, and imprisoned (died 1666).

From 1500 to 1600 the Portuguese had enjoyed a monopoly of the trade with India; with the close of the sixteenth century, the Dutch and English appeared as their rivals. The East India Company of London was incorporated in 1660, and various others similar companies were established at different times; but all were ultimately incorporated with the original company. ("The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies," 1600; Courten's Association ["Assador Merchants"] 1635-1650; "Company of Merchant Adventurers," 1655-1657; "General Society trading to the East Indies" ["English Company"], 1698-1709, united with the original company as "The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies"). The first twelve voyages were separate ventures; after 1612 voyages were made for the com-Opposition of the Portuguese. Battle of Swally. Defeat of the Portuguese. Establishment of an English factory at Surat, 1614. Mission of Sir Thomas Roe to Jahángír (Great Mogul), 1615. Treaty with the Dutch, 1619, without lasting effect. Massacre of English on the island of Amboyna (1623) followed by the withdrawal of the English from the Indian Archipelago (1624). Presidency of Bantam, Foundation of Madras (Fort St. George), 1639. **1635**.

Dutch East India Company, 1602. French East India Companies

1604, 1611, 1615, 1642 (Richelieu's).

China.

1506-1522. Ching-tih. Rebellion of the prince of Ning suppressed after a severe war. About 1522 the Portuguese established themselves at *Macao*.

1542. Tatar invasion under *Yen-ta*, in the reign of **Kea-tsing**. Coast of China ravaged by a Japanese fleet.

1567-1573. Lung-king. His reign was troubled by the Tatars, to relieve the country of whom he resorted to bribery.

1573-1620. Wan-leih. The Tatars continuing their disturbances the emperor gave Yen-ta lands in the province of Shen-se.

1592. The Japanese invaded Corea, but were defeated and compelled to sue for peace.

1597. The Japanese renewed the attack and defeated a Chinese fleet

and army, but suddenly evacuated the peninsula.

1603. Ricci, the Jesuit, at the Chinese court; he preached Christianity in China († 1610).

1604. Dutch in China; also the Spanish.

1616. Invasion of China by Manchoo Tatars who defeated the Chinese, and returning in

1619, Conquered and settled in the province of Leaou-tung.

1620. Teen-ning, the Manchoo ruler, threw off the pretense of allegiance to the Chinese and proclaimed his independence. He established his capital at San-Koo.

Wen-leih was succeeded by Tai-chang (1620), who was followed

by Teen-ke (1620–1627). In

1627, Tsung-ching, the last sovereign of the Ming (1368–1643) dynasty ascended the throne. Rebellion of Le Tsze-ching and Shang Ko-he. The emperor, being hard pressed, applied for aid to the Manchoo Tatars. These allies defeated the rebels, but refused to abandon the fruits of their victories. Seizing Pekin they raised to the throne of China a son of Teen-ning, the Manchoo ruler, who, as the first of the

1644—x, Ta-tsing or Great Pure dynasty, took the name of 1644. Shun-che.

Capture of Nan-king. Period of confusion wherein the lingering resistance of the Chinese was gradually crushed out, and the shaved head and pig-tail, signs of Tatar sovereignty, became more and more common.

Japan.

The period of the Ashikaga shoguns (1344-1573) contains few events of importance, especially after the end of the dual dynasties in 1391, by the act of the southern emperor, who resigned his power on the condition that the imperial office should henceforward alternate between the two lines. The violation of this agreement was the cause of much fighting.

1558-1588. Oki-Machi, mikado.

This reign saw the fall of the Ashikagas, and the rise of three of the most renowned men of Japan: Nobunaga, Hideyoshi, Tokugawa Iyeyasu. Introduction of cannon. The development of feudalism had weakened the power of the shoguns, as they had formerly destroyed that of the mikado. Ota Nobunaga was a feudal lord who acquired fame in a war with the head of another powerful family, Yoshimoto (1560). To him the mikado entrusted the task of pacifying the unhappy country, while his aid was also sought by Yoshiaki, the rightful shogun, who had been dispossessed by Yoshikage. By the battle of Anagawa (1570), where Tokugawa Iyeyasu fought under Nobunaga, Yoshiaki was restored to power, but in 1573 he was deposed by Nobunaga, whom he had plotted to murder.

1573-1582. Government of Nobunaga.

Nobunaga appointed no successor but retained the power in his own hands. He was a determined opponent of the overpowerful Buddhist priests, and took Christianity (the Jesuit Xavier at Kioto) under his protection. Slaughter of the Buddhist priests and capture of their fortified temples.

Death of Nobunaga in a revolt (1582).

1582-1598. Government of Hideyoshi.

The rebel was suppressed by the general *Hideyoshi*, who after considerable fighting reduced the whole country to subjection (1592). War with China; invasion of Corea (p. 355), Hideyoshi was unfavorable to Christianity. 1588, publication of a decree ordering the expulsion of the Jesuits; this, however, was not obeyed. In 1593 nine missionaries were burned at *Nagasaki*. Hideyoshi, the *Taiko*. He was succeeded by an infant son, under the regency of **Tokugawa Iyeyasu**, whose government was popular but who was involved in political troubles that led to war.

1600. Battle of Sekigahara. Iyeyasu defeated his enemies, and in 1603 was made Sei-i-tai-shogun, being the first of the

1603-1868. Tokugawa Shoguns, some of whom subsequently took the title of *Tai-kun* (Tycoon) "high prince."

The rule of *Iyeyasu* was distinguished by the revival of learning and the growth of foreign intercourse (Dutch, English). Iyeyasu resigned his office in 1605 to his son but retained his power until his death.

Iyeyasu died 1616, leaving the "Legacy of Iyeyasu," a code of laws. Redistribution of land. Those vassals of the crown who received a revenue of 10,000 measures of rice were called daimins and numbered 245, eighteen of whom were governors of provinces (kokushiu). Next to the daimios stood the samurai, to whom the daimios

leased their farms in return for military service.

The shogun (who was the first of the daimios) was surrounded by the hatamoto, "house-carls," from whom he selected his officials. They are said to have numbered 80,000. Below the hatamoto were the gokenin, also attached directly to the shogun as private soldiers, comprising the Tokugawa clan. Iyeyasu removed the capital of the shogun from Kamakura to Yedo. The successor of Iyeyasu, Hidetada, sent a messenger to Europe to study Christianity, but his report not being considered favorable, the shogun forbade the introduction of that religion.

1630-1643. Too-Fuku-no-in, daughter of the mikado, Go-mino-o, and the daughter of the shogun, Hidetata, followed the former on the throne as Miosho-Tenno.

Iyemitsu, who succeeded to the shogunate in 1653, was an excellent ruler, but ordered the vigorous enforcement of laws against the Christians, and closed Japan to all foreigners except the Chinese and the Dutch, who were allowed to trade at Nagasaki.

1637. Revolt of the Christians at Shimabara finally suppressed;

massacre of the survivors. Persecution throughout the empire. Extirpation of Christianity. Death of *Iyemitsu*, 1649.

SECOND PERIOD.

FROM THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA TO THE BEGINNING OF THE FIRST FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1648-1784.

A. The second half of the seventeenth century.

§ 1. AMERICA.

British, Dutch, and Swedish Colonies.

1644. Union of Providence and the Rhode Island towns (Newport, Portsmouth) under one charter, obtained by Roger Williams.

Union of Saybrook and Connecticut under the latter name. The colony contained eight taxable towns; that of New Haven numbered six.

Separation of the general court of Massachusetts Bay into two houses.

April 18. Three hundred colonists massacred by the Indians in Virginia.

1645. Rebellion of Clayborne and Ingle in Maryland; they seized the government, but were put down in 1646.

1646. In Massachusetts John Eliot commenced his missionary labors among the Indians at Nonantum. (Translation of the Bible into Massachusetts dialect, 1661-63).

Act of parliament freeing merchandise for the American colonies from all duty for three years, on condition that colonial productions should be exported only in English vessels.

In New Netherlands Kieft was succeeded by Peter Stuyvesant, as governor, who immediately formulated a claim to all the region between Cape Henlopen and Cape Cod.

1648. The petition of **Rhode Island** to be admitted to the union rejected, as that colony would not submit itself to the jurisdiction of Plymouth.

1649. Incorporation in England of the "Society for Propagating the Gospel in New England."

Grant of the land between the Rappahannock and Potomac to lord Culpepper and other royalists.

Massacre of the Hurons at St. Ignatius by the Iroquois.

1650. Agreement between New Netherlands and the United Colonies establishing the boundary between the Dutch and English at Oyster Bay, on Long Island, and Greenwich Bay, Connecticut.

1 "Where Rhode Island is mentioned, before the charter of 1663, it is probable that the Island only is meant." Holmes Annals, I. 287, note 2.

1651. Passage of the Navigation Act in England (p. 376).

1652. The province of Maine joined to Massachusetts.

The parliament in England assumed control of Maryland, and suspended the government of Rhode Island, but the latter order did not take effect.

1655. Stuyvesant, governor of **New Netherlands**, seized the Swedish forts on the Delaware, and broke up the colony of **New**

Sweden.

1659. Virginia proclaimed Charles II. king of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Virginia, and restored the royal governor, Sir William Berkeley.

Execution of two Quakers in Massachusetts.

- 1661. Penal laws against Quakers suspended by order of the king.
- 1662. Charter of Connecticut granted by the king. New Haven refused to accept it. The assembly was composed of the governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants, and two deputies from every town.

1662. Lord Baltimore confirmed in the government of Maryland.

1663. Grant of Carolina (all land between 31° N. and 36° N.) to the earl of Clarendon and associates.

Charter of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

1664. Grant of New Netherlands, from the Connecticut to the Delaware, to the king's brother, James, duke of York and Albany. The grant included the eastern part of Maine, and islands south and west of Cape Cod.

The region between the *Hudson* and the *Delaware* (*Nova Cæsarea*, or **New Jersey**) was granted by the duke to lord *Berkeley*,

and Sir George Carteret.

Aug. 27. Surrender of New Amsterdam to the English; name of the colony changed to New York.

Sept. 24. Surrender of Fort Orange, whose name was changed to Albany.

1665. Maine restored to the heirs of Sir Fernando Gorges.

Union of Connecticut and New Haven.

The royal commissioners empowered to hear complaints in New England, after conferring with the general court of Massachusetts, left the provinces in anger, as the court would not acknowledge their commission.

1666. Depredations of the buccaneers in the West Indies.

1667. Grant of the Bahamas to the proprietors of Carolina.

1667. Treaty of Breda between England and France. Acadia surrendered to France; Antigua, Monserrat, and the French part of St. Christopher surrendered to England.

1668. Massachusetts reassumed the government of Maine.

1669. Adoption of the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina, which were drawn up by John Locke.

Incorporation of the Hudson Bay Company. (Governor and company of adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay.)

1670. Foundation of Charlestown in Carolina.

- Treaty of Madrid between Spain and England, settling the boundaries of their respective territories on the basis of possession.
- 1672. The Spaniards at St. Augustine endeavored to dislodge the settlers in Carolina, but were repulsed.
- 1673. War having broken out between England and Holland, the Dutch captured New York and received the submission of that colony, of Albany and New Jersey. In the peace of 1674 these places were restored to England.

The grant to lord Culpepper was converted to a lease for thirty-

one years.

1675. Edmund Andros, governor of New York, attempted to secure the land west of the Connecticut by force of arms, but was foiled by the energy of the colonists.

1675-1676. King Philip's War.

This was the most extensive combination which the natives had formed against the foreign invaders. King Philip was the son of Massasoit and chief of the Wampanoags. He lived at Mount Hope, near Fall River, Mass. He formed a league comprising nearly all the Indians from Maine to Connecticut. War broke out in June, 1675, and raged with peculiar violence in Massachusetts. Deerfield burnt (Sept. 1). Attack on Hadley (Sept. 1) repulsed by Goffe, one of the judges of Charles I. (?). In the fall (Sept.—Oct.) the United Colonies took the war upon themselves and raised 2,000 troops. Capture of the fort of the Narragansetts by Winslow (Dec. 19). Assaults more or less severe on Warwick, Lancaster, Medfield, Weymouth, Groton, Rehoboth, Providence, Wrentham, Sudbury, Scituate, Bridgewater, Plymouth, Hatfield, and other towns (1676, Jan.—June). Defeat of the Indians near Deerfield (May 19, Fall Fight). Surprise of Philip by captain Church; capture of his wife and son (the latter was sold into slavery), Aug. 2. Philip shot (Aug. 12).

1676. Rebellion of Nathaniel Bacon in Virginia. Jamestown burnt. The rebellion came to an end with the sudden death of Bacon. In the following year royal troops arrived to repress the rebellion, but found all quiet.

New Jersey divided into East and West Jersey. East Jersey was governed by Carteret; West Jersey was held by the

duke of York. (Hence, "the Jerseys.")

- 1677. The dispute between Massachusetts and the heirs of Sir Fernando Gorges over Maine being decided in favor of the latter by the English courts, Massachusetts bought the province of Maine, which henceforward formed a part of that colony.
- 1680. New Hampshire separated from Massachusetts by royal charter. The king appointed the president and council, and retained the right of annulling all acts of the legislature.

Foundation of a new settlement in Carolina, called, like the

first, Charlestown (the present Charleston).

West Jersey restored to the proprietors, the heirs of lord Berkeley.

1681, March 4. Grant of Pennsylvania (the region between the

bay of Delaware, Maryland, and New York), to William Penn. Establishment of a settlement.

1682. Penn brought a colony to Pennsylvania (Aug.). Publication of a frame of government and a body of laws (April-May). Treaty with the Indians. Foundation of Philadelphia.

1683. First legislative assembly in New York; two houses. Only two sessions are known to have been held before the revolu-

tion of 1688.

1684. The troubles between Massachusetts and the crown culminated in the forfeiture of the charter.

These troubles were of old standing, dating from the restoration of Charles II. The favorable reception of Goffe and Whalley, two "regicides," in Boston, at the opening of that monarch's reign, was no favorable omen; and almost the first news received from the colony brought complaints of ill-treatment from Quakers who had suffered under the rigorous laws. In 1661 Charles sent a letter to Massachusetts prohibiting the colony from proceeding further in the prosecution of imprisoned Quakers, and ordering their return to England. The imprisoned Quakers were released, but further controversy led to the dispatch of agents to England. The confirmation of the charter obtained by them was conditioned in a way peculiarly aggravating to the colonists: all laws derogatory to the royal authority should be repealed; the oath of allegiance should be imposed according to the directions of the charter; freedom and liberty of conscience in the use of the Book of Common Prayer should be allowed; the sacrament should not be denied to any person of good life and conversation; all freeholders of competent estates and good character, and orthodox in religion, should be admitted to vote. These demands being evasively met, the king, in 1664, appointed commissioners (Nicolls, Carr, Cartwright, Maverick) to hear complaints and appeals in New England, and settle the peace of the country, who, barely touching at Boston, proceeded to the seizure of New Netherlands. Returning to Boston in the spring of 1665 their demand for a recognition of the commission was met by the excuse that the general court would plead his majesty's charter, whereupon the commission returned to England in anger. The court, however, acknowledged the conditional right of freeholders to vote, and agreed to permit the toleration of Quakers and churchmen for a time. A long period of controversy followed, and agents were sent back and forth with very little effect. In 1671 the colony was "almost on the brink of renouncing any dependence on the crown." The original causes of dispute became complicated by the controversy with the heirs of Gorges in regard to Maine, and by the evasion and disregard of the navigation laws practiced by the colony (1663). 1676 the royal governors were commanded to insist on strict compliance with the commercial laws, both the navigation laws, and those imposing duties on intercolonial trade (1672). John Leverett, governor of Massachusetts, refused compliance, and in 1679 the general court voted "that the acts of navigation are an invasion of the rights nd privileges of the subjects of his majesty in this colony, they not 1670: represented in parliament." The agents then in London to dewith the demand that the Maine purchase be undone and new agents sent to answer the complaints against the colony. Edward Randolph was sent over as collector of customs for Boston, where, however, he was sturdily opposed. The new agents giving no satisfaction, a writ of quo warranto was issued against the colony in 1683, and the court of chancery decided against the colony and declared the charter forfeited (1684). The king appointed colonel Kirke governor of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, and Plymouth, but before he received his commission Charles died and James II. appointed Joseph Dudley president of New England. He took office in 1686.

1686. Issue of a quo warranto writ against Connecticut and Carolina. New York deprived of an assembly and other liberties.

Appointment of Sir Edmund Andros as president of New England. He arrived at Boston Dec. 20. Randolph was now deputy postmaster in New England. Andros assumed the government of Rhode Island. Establishment of an Episcopal society in Boston, for the use of which Andros forcibly seized the Old South Church.

1687. Quo warranto against Maryland.

- Oct. Sir Edmund Andros assumed the government of Connecticut and attempted to secure the charter, but it was carried off from the hall of assembly and hidden in the famous Charter Oak.
- 1688. Tyranny of Andros in Massachusetts. New York and New Jersey placed under his government. Erection of King's Chapel, as an Episcopal church, in Boston.
- 1689. On the receipt of news of the revolution in England, and the establishment of William and Mary, Sir Edmund Andros was seized in Boston (April 18) and thrown into prison. Restoration of the old government. "Council of safety of the people and conservation of the peace." Assembly of representatives at Boston. Provisional resumption of the charter; proclamation of William and Mary. Reëstablishment of the former governments in Rhode Island and Connecticut. New York. Virginia and Maryland proclaimed William and Maria.
- 1689-1697. "King William's War" with the French, a part of the universal war against Louis XIV. The French were assisted by the Canadian Indians and those of Maine, while the *Iroquois* took the war path against the French.

1690. Surprise and destruction of Schenectady (Feb. 8), of Salmon Falls (March 18), and of Casco (May 17), by three bands of French and Indians.

April. Capture of Port Royal by Sir William Phips, who afterwards made a futile attack upon Quebec, by vote of a congress of Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New York. The failure imposed so large a debt on the colonies that Massachusetts was obliged to issue paper money for the first time.

1692. New charter for Massachusetts. Sir William Phips ap-

pointed governor. Under this charter were included the colony of Plymouth, the provinces of Maine, Nova Scotia and all land north to the St. Lawrence; also the Elizabeth Islands, Nantasket, and Martha's Vineyard. The new charter gave the appointment of the governor to the crown, and vested in him the right of calling, proroguing, and dissolving the general court, of appointing military officers and officers of justice (with the consent of the council), of vetoing acts of the legislature and appointments of civil officers made by the legislature. electoral franchise was extended to all freeholders with a yearly income of forty shillings, and all inhabitants having personal property to the amount of £40. Religious liberty was secured to all except Papists.

1692, Feb. Commencement of the Salem witchcraft frenzy.

fore October twenty persons were executed.

Construction of Fort William Henry at Pemaquid in Maine by Sir William Phips.

Rhode Island and Connecticut were allowed to retain their charters.

Charter of the "College of William and Mary" in Vir-

Sir Edmund Andros appointed governor of Virginia and Mary-

1693. Government of Pennsylvania taken from Penn by the crown. An English expedition against Canada was planned but failed of execution.

Fletcher, governor of New York (and now of Pennsylvania), having been entrusted with the command of the militia of Connecticut, went to Hartford Oct. 26 to assert his authority, but was repulsed by the assembly, and by Wadsworth, senior captain of the militia.

French expedition of Frontenac against the *Iroquois*.

- 1696. Capture of the fort at **Pemaquid** by the French under *Iberville*. An expedition of count Frontenac against the Iroquois resulted in little more than the destruction of their harvests.
- 1697. The Peace of Ryswick (p. 371) prevented the execution of a French attack upon Newfoundland. Restoration of conquests by both combatants.

Third expedition of Frontenac against the Iroquois, with little

effect.

1698. The French attempted to settle in Louisiana; also the English. The French claimed control of the fisheries on the north coast, and of the territory from the Kennebec eastward.

Foundation of a Scotch settlement at Darien in the hope of acquiring great wealth by the command of commercial transit (Paterson). The first expedition (1,200 men, besides women and children) perished from starvation, or returned to Scotland; the second was broken up by the Spaniards who considered the settlement a breach of the treaty of Ryswick.

1700. Iberville took possession of the Mississippi for France. 1701. William Penn obtained a new charter for Pennsylvania. 1701. Foundation of Yale College at New Haven in Connecticut.

1702. Joseph Dudiey, governor of Massachusetts. Quarrel with the general court over the proposed salaries to be paid the governor, lieutenant-governor, etc.

An expedition projected by governor Moore of Carolina against St. Augustine resulted in failure. The debt thus in-

curred was discharged by an issue of paper money.

1702-1713. "Queen Anne's War" with the French.

1703. Pennsylvania divided into the province and the territories, with separate assemblies.

1704. Deerfield in Massachusetts destroyed by French and Indians. This was avenged by an expedition under colonel Church which ravaged the French settlements on the east coast of New England.

Establishment of the Church of England in Carolina. The complaints of dissenters against some details of ecclesiastical administration led to the issue of a quo warranto against

the colony, but nothing came of the matter.

1706. Invasion of Carolina by the French and Spanish in assertion of the Spanish claims to that country as a part of Florida. They were repulsed and defeated on land and sea with great loss by William Rhett.

1707. New England sent an expedition against Port Royal, which

returned without effecting its capture.

1708. Surprise of Haverhill by French and Indians.

1709. An expedition was planned against Canada and Acadia to which the colonies were to contribute 2,700 men. The project was abandoned by the English government after the men had been raised, and Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey were obliged to issue paper money to cancel their debts.

1710. Capture of Port Royal by a fleet from England. Change of

the name of the city to Annapolis.

- 1711. An expedition against Canada numbering 68 sail and 6,463 soldiers, largely raised by the colonies, met with disaster and was abandoned.
- 1712. A massacre of colonists in Carolina by the Tuscaroras and other tribes was followed by the dispatch of Barnwell against the Indians. After a difficult march he succeeded in almost annihilating the Tuscaroras, many of whom fled to the Iroquois.
- 1713. Treaty of Utrecht, between Great Britain and France (p. 393). Cession of Hudson Bay and Straits, of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and St. Christopher (in the West Indies) to England.

French settlements and discoveries.

In the earlier part of the century the French had established a claim to Canada and Acadia, extending to the Kennebec in Maine, although the English claimed as far as the Penobscot. From this

vantage ground they extended their discoveries south and west. Jesuit missionaries labored among the Hurons in the country between lakes Erie, Ontario, and Huron, planted the missions of St. Mary (1668) and Michillimachinac, died with their flocks when the undying enmity of the Iroquois annihilated the Hurons (Brebæuf, Lallemont), or sought torture and death at the hands of the Five Nations (Isaac Jogues, 1640-1654).

656. Acadia and Nova Scotia granted to St. Etienne and others by

Cromwell.¹

1656-1658. French colony in western New York, soon broken up.

1659. Francois de Laval, bishop of New France.

1662. The hundred associates of Quebec reconsigned their rights to the king, who soon after granted New France to the French West India Company.

1665. Courcelles, governor of New France. The colony was more than doubled by the transportation of many emigrants from

France.

1666. Expedition of Tracy and Courcelles against the Mohawks.

1666. Allouez founded the mission of St. Esprit on the southern shore

of lake Superior.

1668. The peace of Breda ended the war between England and France which had broken out in 1666. England restored Acadia to France, and obtained from France Antigua, Montserrat, and St. Christopher. This was followed by a peace between the French and the Five Nations. In this year

Foundation of Sault Ste. Marie, at the entrance of lake Superior

by Dablon and Marquette.

1672. Tour of Allouez and Dablon in Wisconsin and Illinois.

1673. Discovery of the Mississippi by Marquette and Joliet (June 17) who descended the stream for an uncertain distance.

Count Frontenac, governor of Canada, completed a fort at Ontario called after himself. Construction of a fort at Michilli-

machinac.

1678. Robert, cavalier de La Salle, began his career of discovery in the great west. Launching in the Niagara, the Griffin, a vessel of forty-five tons, the first ever seen on the great lakes, he sailed Aug. 7, 1679. He passed through lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, and landed at the extreme southern end of the latter lake in October. He built a fort on the St. Joseph and crossed the portage to the Illinois. Not hearing from the Griffin he returned on foot to Canada. Obtaining fresh supplies he retraced his route to the Illinois only to find the fort which he had there erected deserted. Again he returned to Canada; again he obtained aid, and again undertook his enterprise.

1680. Discovery of the Mississippi by *Hennepin*, a priest in the company of La Salle. He ascended the river to 46° N., but the claim which he later advanced that he had explored the Mis-

sissippi to the sea is probably false.

The southern boundary of Acadia in the grant of Henry IV., 1630, was 40° N.; the southwestern limit of Nova Scotia in the grant of James I. 1621, the river St. Croix. Holmes, Annals, I. 307, note 4.

- 1682. La Salle, reaching the Mississippi by way of the St. Joseph and the Illinois, descended the great river to the sea and took possession of its valley for Louis XIV., April 9, under the name of Louisiana.
- 1684. Expedition of De la Barre against the Iroquois, which failed of success.
 - La Salle having announced his discovery in France was sent out at the head of four vessels and a number of settlers to establish a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. Contention between La Salle and the commander of the vessels, who was jealous of the discoverer, resulted in disaster. The squadron missed the mouth of the Mississippi and landed at Matagora Bay (St. Louis), four hundred miles to the west. Here La Salle built a fort, but privation and disease soon greatly reducing the numbers of the colony he undertook to go on foot to Canada for relief. On this expedition

1687. La Salle was shot by one of his own men. The settlement of

Mar. 19. St. Louis soon perished.

1687. Expedition of De Denonville against the Senecas. At this time there were about 11,000 persons in New France.

1689-1697. War of William and Mary, see p. 361. Expeditions of Frontenac against the Iroquois (1693, 1696, 1697).

1695. Foundation of Kaskaskia in Illinois.

ony in Louisiana. The French colony was sent out by Louis XIV. under Lemoine d'Iberville, who entered the Mississippi March 2, and founded a settlement at Biloxi. The English attempt was made by Coxe, a claimant of the old grant of Carolana, who entered the Mississippi, but finding the French before him, retired (Detour aux Anglais).

700. An expedition from Biloxi ascended to the falls of St. An-

thony, in search of gold.

Iberville returning from France took possession of Louisiana anew for the crown. Erection of a fort.

Foundation of Cahokia in Illinois. Fort at Detroit (1701).

1702-13. Queen Anne's war, see p. 363.

Iberville brought new settlers from France and transferred the colony of Biloxi to *Mobile* in Alabama. Iberville † 1706.

1705. Foundation of Vincennes in Indiana.

1712. Grant to Sieur Antoine Crozat of the whole commerce of fifteen years of all the "king's lands in North America lying between New France on the north, Carolina on the east, and New Mexico on the west, down to the gulf of Florida; by the name of Louisiana."

§ 2. FRANCE.

1643-1715. Louis XIV. (five years old), under the guardianship of his mother, Anna, daughter of Philip III., king of Spain, called by the French Anne of Austria, i. e. of Hapsburg. The government, even after Louis' arrival at majority, was conducted by cardinal Mazarin.

1648-1653. Disturbances of the Fronde (cardinal Retz, prince of Condé; resistance of the parliament of Paris), the last attempt of the French nobility to oppose the court by armed resistance. Condé, at first loyal, afterwards engaged against the court, fought a battle with the royal troops under (Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, vicomte de) Turenne, in the Faubourg Saint Antoine, and took refuge in Spain. The first conspiracy, the old Fronde, ended in 1649, with the second treaty of Ruel; the second conspiracy, the new Fronde, which involved treasonable correspondence with Spain, failed in 1650. A union of the two was crushed in 1653. (Gaston of Orléans, and his daughter, "Mademoiselle.")

1648. Acquisitions of France in the Peace of Westphalia, p. 316.

The war with Spain, which sprang up during the Thirty Years' War (victory of Condé at Rocroy, May 18, 1643; alliance with England, 1657; Cromwell sent 8,000 men of his army to the assistance of Turenne) was continued till the

1659. Peace of the Pyrenees:

- 1. France received a part of Roussillon, Conflans, Cerdagne, and several towns in Artois and Flanders, Hainault and Luxembourg.

 2. The duke of Lorraine, the ally of Spain, was partially reinstated (France received Bar, Clermont, etc., and right of passage for troops); the prince of Condé entirely reinstated.

 3. Marriage between Louis XIV. and the infant Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV. of Spain, who, however, renounced her claims upon her inheritance for herself and her issue by Louis forever, both for herself before marriage and for herself and her husband after marriage, in consideration of the payment of a dowry of 500,000 crowns by Spain.
- Louis XIV. (1661-1715), absolute, arbitrary, without états généraux, without regard to the remonstrances of the parliament of Paris (L'état, c'est moi). Colbert, controller general of the finances, from 1662-1683. Reform of the finances; mercantile system. Construction of a fleet of war. Louvois, minister of war, 1666-1691. Quarrel for precedence in rank with Spain. Negotiations with the Pope concerning the privileges of French ambassadors at Rome. The ambition of Louis for fame, and his desire for increase of territory were the causes of the following wars, in which these generals took part: Turenne, Condé, Luxembourg, Catinat, Villars, Vendôme, Vauban (inventor of the modern system of military defense).
- 1667-1668. First war of conquest (war of devolution) on account of the Spanish Netherlands.

Cause: After the death of his father-in-law, Philip IV. of Spain, Louis laid claim to the Spanish possessions in the Belgian provinces (Brabant, Flanders, etc.), on the ground that, being the personal estates

of the royal family of Spain, their descent ought to be regulated by the local "droit de devolution," a principle in private law, whereby in the event of a dissolution of a marriage by death, the survivor enjoyed the usufruct only of the property, the ownership being vested in the children, whence it followed that daughters of a first marriage inherited before sons of a second marriage. The renunciation of her heritage which his wife had made was, Louis claimed, invalid, since the stipulated dowry had never been paid.

1667. Turenne conquered a part of Flanders and Hainault.

By the exertions of Jan de Witt, pensioner of Holland, and Sir 1668. William Temple, England, Holland, and Sweden, concluded the Jan. 23. Triple Alliance, which induced Louis, after Condé had, with great rapidity, occupied the defenseless free county of Burgundy (Franche Comté) to sign the

1668. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

May 2. Louis restored Franche-Comté (the fortresses having been dismantled) to Spain, in return for which he received twelve fortified towns on the border of the Spanish Netherlands, among others, Lille, Tournay, and Oudenarde. The question of the succession was not settled, but deferred.

1672-1678. Second war of conquest (against Holland).

The course of Holland in these transactions had inflamed the hatred of Louis against her, a hatred made still stronger by the refuge given by the provinces to political writers who annoyed him with their abusive publications. To gain his purpose, the destruction or the humiliation of Holland, Louis secured the disruption of the Triple Alliance by a

- 1670. Private treaty with Charles II. of England (p. 380), and be-1672. tween France and Sweden. Subsidy treaties with Cologne and Münster; 20,000 Germans fought for Louis in the following war.
- 1672. Passage of the Rhine. Rapid and easy conquest of southern Holland by Turenne, Condé, and the king, at the head of 100,000 men. The brothers De Witt, the leaders of the aristocratic republican party in Holland, were killed during a popular outbreak (Aug. 27), and William III. of Orange was placed at the head of the state. The opening of the sluices saved the province of Holland, and the city of Amsterdam. Alliance of Holland with Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg (1640–1688), afterwards joined by the emperor and by Spain.
- 1673. Frederic William concluded the separate peace of Vossem (not far from Louvaine), in which he retained his possessions in Cleves, except Wesel and Rees.
- 1674. Declaration of war by the empire.

^{1 &}quot;Secundam antiquas Meklin. constitutiones et fere per universam Brabantiam superstes altero conjugo mortuo usufructuarius redditur suorum bonarum, eorum proprietate statim ad liberos proximos vel qui hæredes futuri sunt devoluta." Comm. to the customs of Mechlin. Ranke, Franz. Gesch. III., 226.

Peace between England and Holland.

Louis XIV. conquered Franche-Comté in person; Condé fought against Orange (drawn battle at Senef) in the Netherlands. Brilliant campaign of Turenne on the upper Rhine (first ravaging of the palatinate) against Montecuculi, the imperial general, and the elector of Brandenburg. The latter, recalled by the inroad of the Swedish allies of Louis XIV. into his lands, defeated the Swedes in the

1675. Battle of Fehrbellin. In the same year Turenne fell at June 18. Sasbach, in Baden (July 27). The French retreated across

the Rhine.

1676. Naval successes in the Mediterranean against the Dutch and Spanish. Death of De Ruyter.

677. Marriage of William of Orange with Mary, eldest daughter of

the duke of York.

1678. Surprise and capture of *Ghent* and *Ypres* by the French. Negotiations with each combatant, which had been for some time in progress, resulted in the

1678-1679. Peace of Nimwegen.

Holland and France (Aug. 10, 1678); Spain and France (Sept. 17, 1678); the Emperor, with France and Sweden (Feb. 6, 1679); Holland with Sweden (Oct. 12, 1679). At Fontainebleau, France and Denmark (Sept. 2, 1679). At Lund, Denmark and

Sweden (Sept. 26, 1679).

1. Holland received its whole territory back, upon condition of preserving neutrality. 2. Spain ceded to France, Franche-Comté, and on the northeast frontier, Valenciennes, Cambray, and the Cambrésis, Aire, Poperingen, St. Omer, Ypres, Condé, Bouchain, Maubeuge, and other towns; France ceded to Spain, Charleroi, Binche, Oudenarde, Ath, Courtray, Limburg, Ghent, Waes, etc.; and in Catalonia, Puycerda. 3. The Emperor ceded to France Freiburg in the Breisgau; France gave up the right of garrison in Philippsburg; the duke of Lorraine was to be restored to his duchy, but on such conditions that he refused to accept them.

Louis XIV. forced the elector of Brandenburg to conclude the

1679. Peace of St. Germain-en-Laye, whereby he surrendered to Sweden nearly all of his conquests in *Pommerania*, in return for which he received only the reversion of the principality of *East Friesland*, which became Prussian in 1744, and a small indemnification (exclamation of the elector: *Exoriare aliquis nostris ex ossibus ultor*, Virg. Æn. IV. 625).

Louis "the Great" at the height of his power. His boundless ambition stimulated by the weakness of the empire led him to establish

the

1680-1683. Chambers of Reunion at Metz, Breisach, Besançon, and Tournay.

These were French courts of claims with power to investigate and decide what dependencies had at any time belonged to the territories and towns which had been ceded to France by the last four treaties of peace. The king executed with his troops the decisions of his tri-

bunals, thus adding to violence in time of peace, the scoff of a legal formality. Saarbrück, Luxembourg, Deuxponts (Zweibrücken), and many other towns were thus annexed to France.

1681, Oct. Capture of Strasburg by treachery.

1683. Invasion of the Spanish Netherlands, occupation of Luxembourg, and seizure of Trier (1684). Lorraine permanently occupied by France. To the weakness of the empire, the wars with the Turks, and the general confusion of European relations since the peace of Nimwegen, it is to be attributed that these outrageous aggressions were met by nothing more than empty protests, and that

1684. A truce for twenty years was concluded at Regensburg between Louis and the emperor and the empire, whereby he retained everything he had obtained by reunion up to Aug. 1, 1681, including Strasburg.

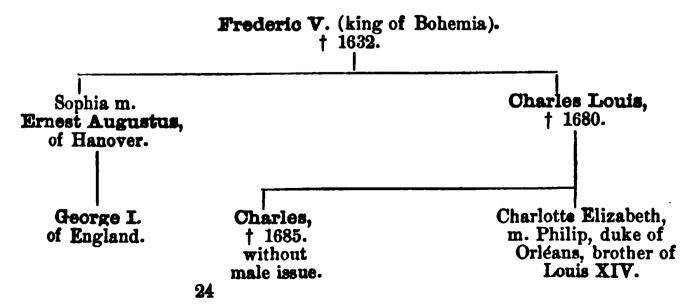
Louis' mistresses: Louise de la Vallière; Madame de Montespan; Madame de Maintenon (Francoise d'Aubigné), a narrow bigot whose influence over the king was boundless. Maria Theresa died 1683. Louis privately married to Madame de Maintenon. War upon heresy. The dragonnades in Languedoc. Wholesale conversions.

1685, Oct. 18. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

The exercise of the reformed religion in France was forbidden, children were to be educated in the Catholic faith, emigration was prohibited. In spite of this more than 50,000 families, including military leaders (Schomberg), men of letters, and the best part of the artificers of France, made their way to foreign countries. Their loss was a blow to the industry of the country, which hastened the approach of the revolution. The exiles found welcome in Holland, England (Spitalfields), Brandenburg. The Protestants of Alsace retained the freedom of worship which had been secured to them.

1689-1697. Third War. (War concerning the succession of the palatinate.)

Cause: After the extinction of the male line of the electors palatine in the person of the elector Charles († 1685), whose sister was the wife of Louis XV.'s brother, the duke of Orléans, the king laid claim to the allodial lands of the family, a claim which he soon extended to the greater portion of the country. Another ground for



war was found in the quarrel over the election of the archbishop of Cologne, which Louis was resolved to secure for Von Fürstenburg, bishop of Strasburg, in place of prince Clement of Bavaria (1688).

Meantime the unfavorable impression produced throughout Protestant Europe by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes had contributed

to the success of the plans of William of Orange, and

1686. The League of Augsburg, directed against France, was signed July 9. by the Emperor, the kings of Sweden and Spain, the electors of Bavaria, of Saxony, and the palatinate. In 1688 occurred the revolution in England which placed William of Orange on the throne of that country, and added a powerful kingdom to the new foes of Louis. The exiled James II. took refuge with the French monarch (court at St. Germain, p. 385).

1688. Invasion and frightful devastation of the Palatinate, by order of Louvois, executed by Melac (Heidleberg, Mannheim, Speier, Worms, and the whole country as far as the borders of Alsace ravaged and burnt). The military successes of the French on the Rhine were unimportant, especially after 1693, when prince Louis of Bavaria assumed the chief command against them.

1689. The Grand Alliance, between the powers who had joined the League of Augsburg and England and Holland (Savoy had joined the league in 1687). The principal scene of war was in the Netherlands.

1690, June 30. Battle of Fleurus, defeat of the prince of Waldeck by Louis' general, Marshal Luxembourg. The French expedition to Ireland in aid of James had but a

temporary success.

1690, July 1. Victory of William III. over the adherents of James II. at the Battle of the Boyne in Ireland (p. 387). French successes in Piedmont; Catinat reduced Savoy; defeat of Victor Amadeus at Staffarda.

1692, May. Defeat of the French fleet under Tourville by the English and Dutch at Cape La Hogue. The mastery of the sea passed from the French to the English. Death of Louvois.

1692, July 24. Battle of Steenkirke (Steenkerken) in Hainault. Victory of Luxembourg over William III. Fall of Namur (June).

1693, July 29. Battle of Neerwinden. Victory of Luxembourg over William III., who in spite of his many defeats still kept the field.

In Italy Marshal Catinat defeated the duke of Savoy at Marsaglia. Rise of prince Eugene ("Eugenio von Savoye," "the little abbé," son of Maurice of Savoy-Carignan, count of Soissons and Olympia Mancini, niece of Mazarin, b. 1663 at Paris; refused a commission by Louis XIV., he entered the Austrian service in 1683; died April 21, 1736). On June 30, the English fleet was defeated at Lagos Bay by Tourville. Failure of the English attack upon Brest (1694), not by the treachery of Marlborough. Death of Luxembourg (Jan. 1696); he was succeeded by the incapable Villeroy.

1695, Sept. Recapture of Namur by William III.

1696, May 30. Separate Peace with Savoy at Turin. All conquests were restored to the duke (*Pignerol* and *Casele*), and his daughter married Louis' grandson, the duke of Burgundy. Savoy promised to remain neutral.

1697, Peace of Ryswick, a village near the Hague. Treaty Sept. 30. between France, England, Spain, and Holland.

1. Confirmation of the separate peace with Savoy. 2. Restoration of conquests between France and England and Holland; William III. acknowledged as king of England, and Anne, as his successor, Louis promising not to help his enemies. 3. It was agreed that the chief fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands should be garrisoned with Dutch troops as a barrier between France and Holland. 4. France restored to Spain all places which had been "reunited" since the peace of Nimwegen, with the exception of eighty-two places, and all conquests. 5. Holland restored Pondicherri in India to the French East India Company and received commercial privileges in return.

1697, Oct. 30. Treaty between France and the emperor (and empire.)

1. France ceded all the "reunions" except Alsace, which henceforward was lost to the empire. 2. Strasburg was ceded to France.

3. France ceded Freiburg and Breisach to the emperor, and Phillipsburg to the empire. 4. The duchy of Zweibrücken was restored to the king of Sweden, as count palatine of the Rhine. 5. Lorraine was restored to duke Leopold (excepting Saarlouis). 6. The claims of cardinal Fürstenburg to the archbishospric of Cologne were disavowed.

7. The Rhine was made free.

Brilliant period of French literature in the age of Louis XIV. Corneille (1606-1684); Racine (1639-1699); Molière (Jean Baptiste Poquelin, 1622-1673); La Fontaine (1621-1695); Boileau (1636-1711); Bossuet (1627-1704); Fléchier († 1710); Fénelon (François de

Selignac de Lamothe, 1651-1715).

Louis' court at Versailles (after 1680) was the pattern for all the other courts of Europe. Buildings, luxury, mistresses (La Vallière, Montespan, Fontange). After the death of his wife, Maria Theresa of Spain (1683), Louis made a secret marriage with Françoise d'Aubigné, widow of the poet Scarron (1610–1660), whom he made Marquise de Maintenon.

§ 3. GERMANY.

1658-1705. Leopold I., son of Ferdinand III.

After 1663 permanent diet at Regensburg, consisting of the representatives of the eight electors, the sixty-nine ecclesiastical, the ninety-six secular princes, and the imperial cities. [A miracle of tedious legislation, often degenerating into a squabble for precedence. "A bladeless knife without a handle."] Corpus Catholicorum and Corpus Evangelicorum; [the corporate organizations of the Catholic and the evangelical estates, the latter being the most important. This or-

ganization of the Protestant estates had existed, in fact, since the latter half of the sixteenth century, but it was legally recognized in the Peace of Westphalia, where it was decreed that in the diet matters relating to religion and the church should not be decided by a majority, but should be settled by conference and agreement between the Catholic and Protestant estates, as organized corporations.]

1661-1664. First war with the Turks; caused by a dispute con-

cerning the election of a prince in Transylvania.

The Turkish successes at last enabled the emperor to obtain help from the empire and from the French. Victory of the imperial general *Montecuculi* over the Turks at St. Gotthard on the Raab (1664). A truce for twenty years, favorable to the Turks, was, nevertheless concluded.

War of the empire against Louis XIV. (see p. 367).

- 1666. Settlement of the contested succession of Cleves-Jülich: Cleve, Mark, Ravenstein, and half of Ravensberg given to Brandenburg; afterwards, the whole of Ravensberg instead of half of Ravenstein.
- 1682-1699. Second war with the Turks. Conspiracy of Hungarian magnates detected and punished. Count Tököly appealed to the Turks for aid. Invasion of Hungary by the Grand Vizier Kara Mustapha and

1683. Siege of Vienna.

Heroic defense conducted by Rüdiger von Stahremberg. Successful relief by a united German and Polish army under Charles of Lorraine and John Sobieski, king of Poland. Henceforward active participation of the German princes in the war, assisted by Venice. After the victory of Charles of Lorraine over the Turks at Mohacs (pron. Mohatch) Aug. 12, 1687, the diet at Pressburg conferred the hereditary succession to the throne of Hungary upon the male line of Austria. The war continued with varying fortune until Prince Eugene, by the

1697. Victory of Zenta, brought about the

1699, Jan. 26. Peace of Carlowitz:

1. The Porte received the Banate Temesvar; Austria, the rest of Hungary and Transylvania.

2. Venice received Morea (the Peloponnesus, p. 416).

Toward the close of the seventeenth and beginning of the eighteenth century, several German princes obtained an elevation in rank.

1692. 1. Hanover became the ninth electorate.

- 1697. 2. The elector of Saxony (Augustus II.), after the death of John Sobieski, became king of Poland, and adopted the Catholic faith.
- 3. Frederic III., elector of Brandenburg (1688-1713), son of the Great Elector, assumed, with the consent of the emperor, the 1701. title of king in Prussia (Frederic I.) and crowned himself at Jan. 18. Königsberg.

§ 4. THE NORTH AND EAST.

Sweden.

Sweden, whose possessions almost surrounded the Baltic Sea, was the first power of the North after the Thirty-Years' War. 1654-1718 (1751). Dynasty of the counts palatine of Zweibrucken (p. 352).

because John Casimir (of the house of Vasa) refused to acknowledge him. He invaded Livonia and Poland, captured Warsaw and drove John Casimir into Silesia. Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg, who had come with an army to the defense of East Prussia, was obliged, by the treaty of Königsberg (1656) to receive his duchy in fee from Sweden, as he had heretofore held it from Poland. He received also the bishopric of Ermeland. Uprising in Poland against the Swedes. Charles Gustavus and the elector Frederic William, who had become a still closer ally by the treaty of Marienburg, gained the 1656. Three days' battle of Warsaw over the Poles. In order to

further secure for himself the aid of the elector of Brandenburg, Charles Gustavus granted him, in the treaty of Labiau (1656) the sovereignty over East Prussia and Ermeland. Nevertheless, Russia, Denmark and the emperor, declared war upon Sweden, and they were soon joined by the elector of Brandenburg, who received from Poland in the treaty of Wehlau (1657) recognition of his sovereignty over East Prussia, but not over Ermeland, for which he received compensation elsewhere. The Swedes were soon driven out of Poland, retaining a hold on Polish Prussia only. Charles Gustavus attacked Denmark which he soon conquered (crossing of the frozen Belt, Jan. 1658), and compelled to make important cessions in the peace of Roeskild (1658). In the same year Charles Gustavus invaded Denmark a second time, purposing the annihilation of the monarchy. Courageous defense of Copenhagen. The Danes received assistance from all sides. Raise of the siege. Sudden death of Charles Gustavus (1660). Under his minor son

1660-1697. Charles XI., the

1660. Peace of Oliva (monastery near Danzig) was concluded with Poland.

John Casimir abandoned his claims upon the throne of Sweden, as well as upon Livonia and Esthonia. Restoration of the duke of Curland. The sovereignty of Prussia ratified by Sweden and Poland. This was followed immediately by the

Peace of Copenhagen with Denmark, which surrendered forever the southern part of the Scandinavian peninsula, which had been ceded already by the peace of Roeskild, but retained Drontheim and Bornholm.

Peace between Sweden and Russia at Kardis (1661); reciprocal surrender of conquests.

War between Sweden, as the ally of France, and Brandenburg; battle of Fehrbellin, p. 368; peace of St. Germain-en-Laye, p. 368.

Denmark.

Immediately after the peace (1660) the third estate (burghers), impatient of the rule of the nobility, and the clergy, conferred upon the king, Frederic III. (1648–1670), an absolutely uncontrolled authority. Lex Regia.

In the same way the Swedish estates, weary of the over-great power of the royal council, conferred almost unlimited power upon king

Charles XI., who was now of age.

Poland.

In Poland, on the contrary, the royal power had become a mere shadow at this period, and the state was, in fact, a republic of nobles. The diet, composed of the senate (bishops, woiwods, castellanes), and the elected representatives from the country (representatives of the nobility) exercised every function of government. The liberum veto, that is, the right of each individual member of the diet to defeat a resolution by his protest, and thus to break up the diet, led to bribery, violence, and, in the end, to absolute anarchy. After the abdication of John Casimir (1668), there followed a bloody contest for the throne; then John Sobieski (1674–1696), the liberator of Vienna (p. 372), and finally Augustus II. of Saxony (1697–1733), under whom the war with the Turks was ended by the Peace of Carlowitz (p. 372).

Russia.

Under the house of Romanow Russia developed in strength and influence. The son of the founder of the dynasty, Alexis, reconquered Little (White) Russia from Poland, and began to introduce European civilization into Russia. After the death of his eldest son, Feodor (1682), his brothers, Ivan and Peter (son of the Czar's second wife, Natalia Narischkin), proclaimed Czars under the guardianship of their elder sister, Sophia, by the Strelitzes, the noble body-guard of the emperor. Peter in Preobaschensk, under the guidance of Lefort, a Swiss. Playing soldiers: origin of the later guard. His half-sister, Sophia, endeavored to exclude him from the throne, but was sent to a cloister by Peter (1689).

1689-1725. Peter I., the Great,

reigned as sole monarch, his weak minded brother, Ivan, continuing until his death (1696) without the least authority.

Peter began his reforms with the assistance of Gordon, a Scot, and Lefort. Conquest of Azoff (1696). After cruelly punishing a revolt of the Strelitzes, Peter undertook his first journey (1697–1698), for his instruction, through Germany to Holland, where he worked as a ship's carpenter in Saardam (Zaandam), and afterwards to England (engagement of foreign artisans, artists, and military officers). Peter intended to visit Italy, but was recalled by a new revolt of the

Stretlizes (1698). Bloody punishment; dissolution of the Strelitzes, who were replaced by an army after the European pattern (1699). 1699. Peace with the Turks at Carlowitz. Acquisition of Azoff.

§ 5. ENGLAND.

1649–1660. England a republic; the Commonwealth. The government was actually in the hands of the army of independents under Oliver Cromwell (b. at Huntingdon, April 25, 1599, where he met prince Charles, 1603; admitted to Sidney-Sussex College, 1616; death of his father, 1617; married Elizabeth Bourchier, 1620; M. P. for Huntingdon, 1628; his first speech, Feb. 1629; removed to St. Ives, 1631; removed to Ely, 1636; affair of Bedford-Level, 1638; M. P. for Cambridge, 1640; removed to London; resided at the Cockpit [Westminster], 1650; at Whitehall, 1654; died Sept. 3, 1658. Children: Oliver, Richard, b. 1626; abdicated May 25, 1659; died, 1712; Henry, b. 1628; Bridget, married Ireton, 1646 [Fleetwood, 1651]; Elizabeth, married Mr. Claypole; died, 1658; Frances, married Richard Rich, grandson of Warwick, 1657; Mary, married lord Fauconberg), but theoretically the legislative department was in the hands of the Rump parliament, consisting of some fifty members of the commons (independents), while the executive was entrusted to a council of state numbering forty-one members (three judges, three military commanders, five peers, thirty members of the commons).

Abolition of the title and office of king, and of the house of lords. Charles II. proclaimed in Edinburgh (Feb. 5). New great seal. Rising in Ireland in favor of Charles II., under the marquis of

Ormond. Expedition of Cromwell to Ireland (Aug. 15).

1649, Sept. 12. Storm of Drogheda; massacre of the garrison, followed by the storm and massacre of Wexford. Cromwell returned to London, May, 1650, leaving Ireton in Ireland. The "rebellion" was not thoroughly put down until 1652, when three out of four provinces were confiscated.

1650. Montrose landed in Scotland, was defeated at Corbiesdale (April 27), betrayed, captured, and executed at Edinburgh

May 21.

June 24. Charles II. landed in Scotland, and after taking the coverant, was proclaimed king.

Cromwell appointed captain-general in place of Fairfax. He led 16,000 men to Scotland, and totally defeated the Scots under Leslie at the

Sept. 3. Battle of Dunbar.

Surrender of Edinburgh and Glasgow.

1651, Jan. 1. Charles II. was crowned at Scone and marched into England (July) at the head of the Scotch army while Cromwell took *Perth* (Aug. 2). The latter followed the king, and at the

Sept. 3. Battle of Worcester totally defeated the royalists. Charles in disguise escaped to France.

1651, Oct. 9. First navigation act, forbidding the importation of goods into England except in English vessels (but goods might be conveyed to England in vessels belonging to the country producing the goods). This measure was aimed at the Dutch, and resulted in the

1652, July 8-1654, April 5. Dutch War.

Naval actions in the Channel; English commanders, Blake, Monk; Dutch, Van Tromp, De Ruyter. English victory in the Downs before the declaration of war, May. Defeat of Van Tromp and De Ruyter, Sept. 28; defeat of Blake, Nov.; defeat of Van Tromp off Portland, Feb. 18, 1653; off the North Foreland, June 2, 3. Death of Ireton (Nov. 1651).

Between the army and the Rump there had been growing contention since the death of Charles I. A new parliament was desirable, but the members of the Rump wished to retain their seats in any new parliament. The negotiations for ransom of confiscated royalist

estates led to bribery of members.

1652, Feb. Act of indemnity and oblivion.

Aug. First act of settlement for Ireland.

1653, April 20. Cromwell turned out the Rump and dissolved the council of state. Establishment of a new council and nomination of

July 4. A new parliament ("Barebone's parliament," also called the "Little parliament"), consisting of about 140 members.

July 31. Victory of Monk off the Texel; death of Van Tromp. Sept. Second act of settlement for Ireland.

Dec. 12. The Cromwellians in parliament resigned their powers to Cromwell; an act subsequently approved by the majority.

1653, Dec.-1659, May. Protectorate.

1653, Dec. 16-1658, Sept. 3. Cromwell Lord Protector of the commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

"The instrument of government," a written constitution.

The executive power was vested in the lord protector, who was provided with a council of twenty-one, which filled its own vacancies. A standing army of 30,000 men established; parliament was to be triennial, and to consist of 460 members, who when once summoned could not be dissolved inside of five months. Between sessions the protector and council could issue ordinances with the force of laws, but parliament alone could grant supplies and levy taxes.

1654, April 5. Peace with the Dutch.

Sept. 3. New parliament. As the course of the assembly did not suit the protector, he ordered an exclusion of members (Sept. 12). After voting that the office of protector should be elective instead of hereditary the

1655, Jan. 22. Parliament was dissolved.

April. Blake chastised the deys of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli.

March-May. Rising of Penruddock at Salisbury suppressed. Execution of Penruddock.

England divided into twelve military districts, each under a

major-general, with a force supported by a tax of ten per cent. on royalist estates.

May. Penn and Venables, sent to make reprisals in the Spanish West

Indies, captured Jamaica.

1655, Oct. Pacification of Pinerolo concluded with France. The duke of Savoy to stop the persecution of the Vaudois. Charles to be expelled from France.

Nov. Anglican clergymen forbidden to teach or preach. Priests ordered out of the kingdom. Censorship of the press.

1656-1659. War with Spain.

Sept. 9. Capture of Spanish treasure ships off Cadiz.

1656, Sept. 17-1658, Feb. 4. Cromwell's third parliament.
Another exclusion of members.

Oct. Reduction of the power of the major-generals.

1657, Jan. Plot against the protector ("Killing no Murder"). Punishment of Nayler.

March-May. Humble petition and advice altering the constitution, adopted by parliament. Establishment of a second house; the council of state reduced in power; the protector deprived of the right of excluding members; fixed supply for the army and navy; toleration of all Christians except Episcopalians and Roman Catholics. The title of king was offered to Cromwell but rejected by him (May 8).

April 20. Victory of Blake off Santa Cruz. Death of Blake, Aug. 17.

June 26. Second inauguration of Cromwell.

1658, Jan. 20. New session of parliament, including "the other house."

Feb. 4. Dissolution of Cromwell's last parliament.

May. Siege of Dunkirk by the English and French. A Spanish force advancing to the relief of the town was defeated in the

June 4. Battle of the Dunes, which was followed by the surrender of Dunkirk (June 17). In the peace of the Pyrenees (1659, p. 366), England received this town.

Sept. 3. Death of Oliver Cromwell.

1658, Sept. 3-1659, May 25. Richard Cromwell lord protector.

1659, Jan. 27. A new parliament met, and was soon involved in a dispute with the army, which induced Richard to

April 22. Dissolve the parliament ("Humble representation and advice of the officers").

May 7. The Rump parliament reassembled under Lenthall as speaker.

May 25. Richard Cromwell resigned the protectorate.

Aug. Insurrection of Booth crushed at Winnington Bridge (Lambert).

Oct. 13. Expulsion of the Rump by the army (Lambert). Appointment of a military committee of safety. This assertion of authority did not meet with approval even within the army.

Dec. 26. Restoration of the Rump. Monk, who was in Scotland, led his army to London and assumed control of affairs (Feb. 3, 1660). Monk captain-general.

1660, Feb. 21. Restoration of members excluded in 1648. Re-establishment of the Long Parliament.

March 16. Final dissolution of the Long Parliament. 1

1660, Apr. 14. Declaration of Breda. Charles proclaimed amnesty to all not especially excepted by parliament, promised liberty of religious belief, and the settlement of confiscated estates in the hands of the possessors.

1660, Apr. 25-Dec. 29. Convention Parliament; chosen without restrictions and numbering 556 members. The parliament received the declaration of Breda favorably and returned a loyal

answer to the king (May 1).

May 8. Charles proclaimed king; on May 29 he entered London.

1660-1685. Charles II.,

extravagant, dissipated, careless of the duties of his position. Charles's restoration was hailed by an outburst of loyalty which enabled him to neglect many of the promises of the declaration of Breda. The king's brother, James, duke of York, appointed lord high admiral and warden of the Cinque ports; Monk captain-general; Sir Edward

Hyde (earl of Clarendon) chancellor and prime minister.

Abolition of the feudal rights of knight service, worship, and purveyance in consideration of a yearly income for the king of £1,200,000. Restoration of the bishops to their sees and to parliament. Act of indemnity for all political offenses committed between Jan. 1, 1637, and June 24, 1660; the regicides were excepted from this act. All acts of the long parliament to which Charles I. had assented were declared The army was disbanded (Oct.), excepting some 5,000 in force. Declaration for the settlement of Ireland.

1660, Dec. 29. Dissolution of the Convention parliament.

1661, Jan. Rising of the fifth monarchy men in London (Venner). Bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, disinterred and treated with indignity.

Royalist parliament in Scotland. Abolition of the Covenant. Repeal of all enactments of preceding parliaments for the last

twenty-eight years.

Apr.—July. Savoy Conference of Episcopalians and Presbyterians.

Apr. 23. Coronation of Charles II.

1661, May 8-1679, Jan. 24. New parliament. "Cavalier" or "pension" parliament.

Solemn league and covenant burnt.

1661, May 27. Execution of Argyle in Scotland.

1 Recapitulation of the history of the Long Parliament: —

1640, Nov. 3. First assembled.

1640, Nov. 3. First assembled.

1648, Dec. 6, 7. Pride's Purge. The Rump.

1653, April 20. The Rump turned out by Cromwell.

1659, May 7. The Rump restored.

1659, Oct. 13. The Rump expelled by the army.

1659, Dec. 26. The Rump restored.

1660, Feb. 21. Members excluded by Pride's Purge, restored.

1660, March 16. The parliament dissolved.

Nov. 20. Corporation act: all magistrates and municipal officers obliged to take the sacrament according to the Church of England, to abjure the covenant, and to take an oath declaring it illegal to bear arms against the king.

James Sharpe, created archbishop of St. Andrews, attempted to introduce episcopacy in Scotland.

- 1662, May 20. Marriage of Charles II. with Catherine of Braganza, daughter of John IV. of Portugal.
- Aug. 24. The act of uniformity (adopted May 19), went into operation. All clergymen, fellows, and schoolmasters were required to assent to everything in the book of common prayer. Nearly 2,000 (?) non-conformists lost their livings (dissenters). Declaration of indulgence promised.

1662, June 14. Execution of Sir Henry Vane.

- Nov. Sale of Dunkirk to France for £400,000. Act of settlement for Ireland.
- 1663. An insurrection of fifth monarchy men in the north was followed by the passage of the
- 1664, May. Conventicle act, forbidding the meeting of more than five persons for religious worship, except in the household, or in accordance with the established church.

 Repeal of the triennial act (1641).

Aug. Capture of New Amsterdam in America.

1665, Feb. 22-1667, July 21. War with Holland.

1665, April. The plague in London.

June 3. Naval victory of Lowestoft over the Dutch.

- Oct. The five mile act: all who had not subscribed to the act of uniformity were ordered to take the oath of non-resistance, to swear never to undertake any alteration in church or state; and those who refused were prohibited from coming within five miles of any incorporated town, or of any place where they had been settled as ministers.
- 1666, Jan. 16-1667, July 21. War with France.
- June 1-4. Naval victory of Albermarle (Monk) over the Dutch (De Ruyter, De Witt) off the North Foreland.
- Sept. 2. Great Fire of London; lasting over a week and burning a region of 450 acres. The Monument. St. Paul's rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren.
- Nov. 28. Battle of *Pentland Hills* in Scotland. Defeat of the Covenanters, who had revolted under their persecutions, by Dalziel.
- 1667, June. The Dutch fleet burnt Sheerness, entered the Medway, and sailed to within twenty miles of London.
- July 21. Treaties of Breda between England, Holland, France, Denmark. England received from France, Antigua, Montserrat, English St. Christopher's; France received Acadia. England and Holland adopted the status quo of May 20, 1667; England retaining New Amsterdam, and Holland, Surinam. It was agreed that goods brought down the Rhine might be transported to England in Dutch vessels.
- Aug. Fall of Clarendon, on whom the most unpopular acts of the

government were fathered; he was deprived of the great seal, impeached, and banished for life (died at Rouen, 1674).

The chief officers of state, whose councils determined the course of government, began in this reign to be looked upon as a distinct (unconstitutional) council, although they did not, for some time to come, stand and fall together.

Accession of a new ministry called the "Cabal" (Clifford, Arling-

ton, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale).

1668, Jan. 13. The triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden negotiated by Sir William Temple and John De Witt as a check upon the aggressions of Louis XIV. (p. 367).

1670, May 22. Secret treaty of Dover between Charles II. and Louis XIV. negotiated by Charles's sister, Henrietta, duchess of Orléans.

Charles agreed that he and the duke of York would openly join the Church of Rome as soon as expedient, that he would support Louis in his wars with Spain and Holland. Louis promised Charles £200,000 a year while the war lasted, and the assistance of 6,000 men in case of an insurrection. Louise la Querouaille, Charles's mistress, created duchess of Portsmouth. The duke of York at once professed his belief in Rome.

1670. Second Conventicle act, more stringent than the first.

1672. Charles being in want of money closed the exchequer, thus seizing £1,200,000 which had been advanced to the government by

bankers. A general panic followed.

1672, March. Declaration of indulgence; under the pretense of lightening the burden on non-conformists, the proclamation really aimed at securing toleration for papists. Parliament compelled the king to withdraw the indulgence in 1673.

1672, March 17–1674, Feb. 9. War with Holland.
Invasion of Holland by Louis XIV. Revolution in the Netherlands. Murder of John and Cornelius De Witt. William of Orange stadtholder.

May 28. English naval victory at Southwold Bay.

Nov. Shaftesbury (Anthony Ashley Cooper), lord chancellor.

1673, March. Test act.

All persons holding office under government were compelled to take the oaths of allegiance and of supremacy, to abjure transubstantiation, and to take the sacrament according to the established church.

The duke of York, Shaftesbury, lord Clifford, resigned office, being superseded by prince Rupert, Sir Thomas Osborne (earl of Danby, viscount Latimer, marquis of Carmarthen, duke of Leeds), and Sir Heneage Finch (earl of Nottingham). Buckingham out of office.

Nov. 21. Marriage of the duke of York with Mary d'Este, princess

of Modena.

1674, Feb. 9. Treaty of Westminster. End of the Dutch-English war.

1 This word did not originate from the initials of the ministers, although the coincidence of their happening to spell the word gave a zest to its application.

- 1677, Nov. 4. Marriage of Mary, daughter of the duke of York, with William of Orange (afterwards William IV.).

 Treaty with Holland; secret treaty with France. Abolition of the writ de hæretico comburendo.
- Aug. 10. Peace of Nimeguen.
- 1678, Sept. The Popish Plot. This famous scare began with the information given by Titus Oates, concerning an alleged plot for the murder of Charles and the establishment of Roman Catholicism in England, devised by Don John of Austria, and the father confessor of Louis IV., Père la Chaise. Death of Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey. Upon the meeting of parliament five Catholic lords (Powys, Bellasis, Stafford, Petre, Arundel) were sent to the Tower. Conviction and execution of Coleman, confessor of the duchess of York. Bedloe swore to the plot, moved by the favors showered on Oates. Passage of the papists disabling act (repealed 1828) excluding Roman Catholics from parliament.
- Dec. Impeachment of Danby, on a charge of criminal correspondence with France.
- 1679, Jan. 24. Dissolution of the "Pensioned" Parliament.

 Danby dismissed from the office of lord high treasurer. The duke of York left the kingdom after procuring from Charles a statement that he had never had any other than his present wife (this to dispose of the claims of the duke of Monmouth, natural son of Charles and Lucy Walters).

1679, March 6-1679, May 27. Third Parliament of Charles II.

The impeachment of Danby was resumed; and he was committed to the Tower, where he lay until 1685.

Adoption of the council of thirty, in accordance with the scheme of government sketched by Sir William Temple. Being found cumbersome in practice it was soon superseded by a new cabinet council, composed of Sir William Temple; Savile, viscount Halifax; Capel, earl of Essex; Spencer, earl of Sunderland; Shaftesbury, president, afterwards in opposition. Introduction of a bill to prevent the duke of York from succeeding to the crown, he being a Roman Catholic. ("Exclusion bill" passed to a second reading in the commons, 207 to 128.)

1679, May. The habeas corpus act signed by the king: judges were obliged, on application, to issue to any prisoner a writ of habeas corpus, directing the jailer to produce the body of the prisoner, and show cause for his imprisonment; prisoners should be indicted in the first term of their commitment, and tried not later than the second; no person once set free by order of the court could be again imprisoned for the same offense.

May 27. Prorogation of parliament (dissolved in July).

May-June. Covenanters in Scotland cruelly persecuted by Lauder-dale. Murder of archbishop Sharpe, May 3, 1679. Defeat of Claverhouse by the Covenanters, under Balfour, at Drumclog, June 1.

June 22. Battle of Bothwell-Brigg; defeat of the Covenanters by the duke of Monmouth. Cruelties of the duke of York in Scotland.

Oct. 7. The fourth parliament of Charles II., prorogued immediately upon its meeting without the advice of the council: Sir W. Temple, Essex, and Halifax resigned, and were succeeded by Sidney Godolphin, earl of Godolphin, and Laurence Hyde, earl of Rochester (son of Clarendon).

"Meal tub plot," an alleged papist conspiracy against the king,

disclosed by Dangerfield. (Papers in a tub of meal.)

Meeting of parliament demanded by the opposition (Shaftesbury). Petitions sent up, asking that parliament be called. The court party retorted by sending addresses expressive of their abhorrence at this interference with the king. Hence Petitioners (the opposition) and Abhorrers (the government), afterwards Whigs and Tories. (Whig, name of a Scotch, Tory, of an Irish faction.)

1680, Oct. 21-1681, Jan. 18. Fourth parliament of Charles II. The exclusion bill, passed by the commons, was thrown out in

the lords by the influence of Halifax.

1681, March 21-28. Fifth parliament of Charles II., at Oxford. A new exclusion bill being introduced, parliament was dissolved, March 28.

July-Aug. Execution of Plunkett, archbishop of Armagh, for high

treason (July 1); of College (Aug. 31).

Nov. Shaftesbury, accused of high treason, committed to the Tower. The bill being ignored by the grand jury he escaped to Holland (died 1683).

Continued persecution of the Covenanters, Conventiclers, and Cameronians (so called after a popular preacher, † July 20, 1680), in Scotland. Passage of a test act against the Presbyterians, which, however, also caused the resignation of some eighty Episcopal clergymen. Trial and condemnation of the earl of Argyle (Dec.); his flight.

1682. William of Orange in England. The duke of York, accompanied by John Churchill (b. 1650, served under Turenne in France; general under James II.; married Sarah Jennings; baron Churchill, 1685; earl of Marlborough, 1689; duke of Marlborough, 1702; died, June 16, 1722), shipwrecked on the voyage to Scotland. Monmouth made a progress in the northwest counties, and was arrested and held to bail.

Dec. Death of the earl of Nottingham (Finch); Sir Francis North made lord keeper. Sunderland, secretary of state (Jan. 1683).

1683, June. Judgment given against the city of London on a quo warranto; forfeiture of the charter, which was ransomed. This process was successfully repeated with other corporations. Confederacy of Monmouth, Essex, Russell, Gray, Howard, Sidney, Hampden, for securing a change in the proceedings of the government. This was supplemented by a plot of a different set of persons for the assassination of the king, known as the Rye House plot, from the place where the king was to be shot. Both plots were revealed. Suicide of Essex, execution of Russell and Sidney; Monmouth was pardoned, and retired to Holland.

Sept. Jeffries, lord chief justice of the king's bench. The duke of

York was reinstated in office. Danby liberated; Oates fined

1685, Feb. 6. Death of Charles II., who accepted Roman Catholi-

cism on his death-bed.

1685–1688. James II.,

a cruel, revengeful, deceitful despot. He was twice married: 1. Anne Hyde, daughter of lord Clarendon (daughters, Mary, married William of Orange; Anne, married George of Denmark). 2. Mary d'Este (son, James Edward). Halifax, president of the council; Sunderland, secretary of state; Godolphin, chamberlain of the queen, Clarendon, lord privy seal, Rochester, treasurer.

1685, May 19-1687, July 2. Parliament of James II. Trial and condemnation of Richard Baxter. Danby and the popish lords discharged.

Trial of Oates and Dangerfield, who were sentenced to be May. whipped. (Dangerfield died from the punishment.)

1685. Expedition of Monmouth and Argyle.

Argyle landed in Scotland, where he was coldly received; June 17 he was captured, and executed June 30.

1. Landing of Monmouth in Dorsetshire. He proclaimed himself king, as James II. Gathering a force of some June 11. 60,000 men he was defeated in the

July 6. Battle of Sedgemoor (the last battle in England).

Execution of Monmouth on Tower Hill. "Kirke's July 15. Lambs" quartered on the people in the western counties. Jeffries sent on a circuit in the west to try the rebels and those who had aided them. "The Bloody Assize" (Lady Alice Lisle). Jeffries made lord chancellor.

Halifax dismissed from the presidency of the council and superseded by the earl of Sunderland (who became a Roman Catholic). Parliament met Nov. 9, but as they would not repeal the last act

they were prorogued Nov. 27.

Arrival of many refugees from France after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

- 1686, June. Sir Edward Hales, a papist, appointed to office by James under a dispensation. In a suit brought to test the legality of the act judgment was procured in the king's favor, by the appointment of judges favorable to the court. Catholic worship allowed. Protestant clergymen forbidden to preach doctrinal sermons. Compton, bishop of London, refused to remove the rector of St. Giles who had disobeyed this order. He was therefore tried before a
- 1686, July. New court of ecclesiastical commission and suspended.

Camp of 13,000 men at Hounslow Heath. Rochester dis-

missed from office.

Clarendon superseded by Tyrconnel (Richard Talbot) as lord lieutenant of Ireland. The fellows of Magdalen College having refused to accept Farmer, a papist, whom the king had ap-

- pointed president, were expelled from their college. This was only a part of the attempt made by the king to secure the universities.
- April. First declaration of liberty of conscience published by the king in England and Scotland, granting liberty of conscience to all denominations.
- July. Parliament dissolved. Father Petre, the king's confessor and chief adviser, admitted to the privy council.
- 1688, April 25. Second declaration for liberty of conscience ordered to be read in all churches.
 - Sancroft, archbishop of Canterbury, and bishops Ken, Lake, Lloyd, Turner, Trelawney, White, were committed to the Tower for having petitioned the king not to insist on their reading an illegal order.
- June 10. Birth of a prince.
- June 29, 30. Trial of the bishops for having published a false, malicious, and seditious libel. The bishops were acquitted, a verdict which was received with wild enthusiasm throughout the country. On the same day an invitation was dispatched to William of Orange to save England from a Catholic tyranny; it was signed by the
 - "Seven eminent persons" or "seven patriots," the earl of Devonshire, earl of Shrewsbury, earl of Danby, Compton (bishop of London), Henry Sidney, lord Lumley, admiral Russell.
 - James declared his intention to call a parliament. Last meeting of the ecclesiastical commission.
- Sept. 30. Declaration of William to the people of England, accepting the invitation for the purpose of securing the religious and civil rights of Englishmen. Doubts thrown on the birth of the prince.

William's army was under Schomberg, his fleet was under admiral Herbert. James's land force was led by Feversham, while Dartmouth commanded the fleet.

The declaration frightened James; he endeavored to retrace his steps and dismissed Sunderland from the council. William sailed from Helvoetsluys Oct. 19, with 14,000 men, but was driven back by a gale. Starting again Nov. 1,

- 1688, Nov. 5. William landed at Torbay. Risings occurred in various parts of the kingdom, and William was joined by the duke of *Grafton* and lord *Churchill* (Nov. 22). Princess *Anne* fled from London in company with lady Churchill. James issued writs for a new parliament and sent commissioners to treat with William.
- Dec. 10. Queen and prince sent to France.
- Dec. 11. Flight of James, who tore up the unissued writs for parliament and took with him the great seal, which he threw into the Thames.
- 1688, Dec. 11-1689, Feb. 13. Interregnum.

Riots in London. Flight of Sunderland and Father Petre; capture of Jeffries († in the Tower April 18, 1689).

Dec. 12. Provisional government under the presidency of Halifax, established by the peers in London.

Dec. 17. James, who had been stopped at Sheerness, was brought back to London.

Dec. 18. James retired to Rochester.

Dec. 19. William entered London.

Dec. 22. James escaped to France, where he received a pension from Louis XIV.

1689, Jan. 22–1690, Jan. 27. Convention parliament, summoned by the advice of the peers.

On Jan. 28 the commons declared: "That king James II. having endeavored to subvert the constitution of the kingdom by breaking the original contract between king and people, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is vacant." Also: "That it hath been found by experience to be inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a popish prince." The lords objected to the use of the word "abdicated," and to the declaration of the "vacancy" of the throne, but an agreement being reached in a conference of the two houses, the crown was offered to Mary and the regency to William; this being refused.

1689, Feb. 13. Parliament offered the crown to William and Mary jointly, accompanying the offer by the presentation of the

Declaration of rights, asserting the "true, ancient, and indubitable rights of the people of this realm." 1. That the making or suspending law without consent of parliament is illegal. 2. That the exercise of the dispensing power is illegal. 3. That the ecclesiastical commission court and other such like courts are illegal. 4. That levying money without consent of parliament is illegal. 5. That it is lawful to petition the sovereign. 6. That the maintenance of a standing army without the consent of parliament is illegal. 7. That it is lawful to keep arms. 8. That elections of members of parliament must be free. 9. That there must be freedom of debate in parliament. 10. That excessive bail should never be demanded. 11. That juries should be impaneled and returned in every trial. 12. That grants of estates as forfeited before conviction of the offender are illegal. That parliament should be held frequently. "William and Mary were declared king and queen of England for life, the chief administration resting with William; the crown was next settled on William's children by Mary; in default of such issue, on the princess Anne of Denmark and her children; and in default of these, on the children of William by any other wife." The crown was accepted by William and Mary, who were on the same day proclaimed king and queen of Great Britain, Ireland, and France.

1689-1702. William III. and Mary (until 1694).

Privy councillors: earl of Danby (marquis of Carmarthen), president; Nottingham, Shrewsbury, secretaries of state; marquis of Halifax, privy seal; Schomberg (duke of Schomberg) master-general

of ordnance; Bentinck (earl of Portland), privy purse and groom of the stole. Burnet, bishop of Salisbury, author of "History of my own Times."

Feb. 22. Convention parliament transformed by act into a regular

parliament. Settlement of the coronation oath.

March 1. Oaths of allegiance and supremacy taken by the houses, the clergy, etc. A few peers, some members of the lower house refused them. Six bishops and about 400 clergymen were finally (1691) deprived of their holdings for refusing to take the oaths, and became known as non-jurors.

March 14. Landing of James at Kinsale in Ireland; joined by Tyrconnel; entered Dublin March 24. Irish parliament, May 7.

Meeting of the estates of Scotland.

Reversal of Russell's attainders (later of Sidney's).

First mutiny act to punish defection in the army; this act, which was necessitated by the declaration of rights, was made for a year only, and was henceforward passed annually.

April 11. Coronation of William and Mary. William and Mary

were offered and accepted the crown of Scotland.

April 20-July 30. Siege of Londonderry by James (Walker); raised by Kirke.

1689, May 7-1697, Sept. 20. War with France (p. 361).

May 24. Toleration act exempting dissenters (who had taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy) from penalties for non-attendance on the services of the established church.

Titus Oates pardoned and pensioned.

July. Episcopacy abolished in Scotland.

Graham of Claverhouse, now viscount Dundee, enlisted Highlanders and raised the standard for James. At the

July 17. Battle of Killiecrankie

he defeated general Mackay, but fell on the field.

July 30. Battle of Newtown Butler in Ireland; defeat of the Catholics. Schomberg in Ireland.

In voting supplies parliament assumed as a right the practice which had grown up during the reign of Charles I. of requiring estimates and accounts of supplies needed and used, and introduced the system of passing appropriations for specified objects from which they could not be diverted.

1689. Dec. 16. Bill of Rights, a parliamentary enactment of the declaration of rights, repeating the provisions of that paper, settling the succession as detailed (p. 385), and enacting that no papist could wear the

crown.
1690, Feb. 6. Dissolution of parliament.

1690, March 20-1695, May 3. Second parliament of William

III. Tories in the majority.

Act of recognition, affirming the legality of the acts of the convention parliament. Settlement of the civil list. William was offended at not receiving so large an income as had been granted either to Charles II. or James II.

1690, May 20. Act of Grace, giving indemnity to all supporters of James II., except those who were in treasonable correspondence with him. Resignation of Shrewsbury and Halifax.

May 23. Prorogation of parliament. Appointment of a council of nine to advise Mary during the king's absence (four Whigs,

five Tories).

June 14. William went to Ireland. With 36,000 men he met James at the head of 27,000, and at the

July 1. Battle of the Boyne

totally defeated him. Death of Schomberg. James fled to

France. Capture of Dublin, Waterford, etc.

June 30. Battle of Beachy Head; defeat of the English fleet under lord Torrington by the French. Torrington was tried by court martial and acquitted, but dismissed the service.

Aug. First siege of Limerick by William repulsed (Sarsfield).

Marlborough in Ireland. Capture of Cork and Kinsale.

1691. William went to Holland. Congress at the Hague. Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury.

July 12. Battle of Aughrim, in Ireland.

Defeat of the French general St. Ruth and the Irish Sarsfield, by Ginkell (death of St. Ruth). Death of Tyrconnel.

Aug.-Oct. Second siege of Limerick; the town surrendered Oct. 3,

under the conditions known as the

Oct. 3. Treaty, or pacification, of Limerick. Free transportation of all Irish officers and soldiers desiring it to France. (The Irish Brigade.) All Irish Catholics to have that religious liberty which they had under Charles II.; to carry arms, exercise their professions, and receive full amnesty.

The English parliament confirmed the treaty, but the Irish parliament which met 1695 (consisting entirely of Protestants) refused to ratify it. Enactment of severe laws against the

Catholics.

1692, Jan. 10. Marlborough detected in correspondence with James, and disgraced.

1692, Feb. 13. Massacre of Glencoe.

Indemnity and pardon having been offered to all Highland clans who took the oath of allegiance before Dec. 31, 1691, that condition was fulfilled by all except the *MacDonalds* of Glencoe. The chief, *Mac Ian*, however, took the oath on Jan. 6. This fact was suppressed by the foe of the MacDonalds, *Dalrymple*, secretary of Scotland, and William III. signed an order for the extirpation of the clan. It was faithfully executed by captain *Campbell*; *Mac Ian*, and some forty others were slain.

May 19. English victory of La Hogue; Russell and Tourville.

Aug. 3. Defeat of William at Steinkirk.

The "Junto" ministry of Whigs; Somers, lord keeper; Russell, Shrewsbury, Thomas Wharton, secretaries of state; Montague, chancellor of the exchequer. Sunderland returned to parliament.

1693, Jan. Beginning of the national debt. £1,000,000 borrowed

on annuities at 10 per cent.

1693, July 19. Defeat of William at Neerwinden (Landen).

1694, July 27. Charter of the Governor and company of the Bank of England, a company of merchants who in return for certain privileges loaned the government £1,200,000. Bill for preventing officers of the crown from sitting in the commons (Place Bill). Unsuccessful attack on Brest. (Treachery of Marlborough?)

Dec. 22. The triennial bill signed by the king.

Dec. 28. Death of queen Mary.

Bribery in the parliament; expulsion of the speaker of the commons, Sir John Trevor.

Expiration of the licensing act, which was not renewed; hence abolition of the censorship of the press.

1695. Miserable end of the Darien settlement.

July 2-Sept. 2. William recaptured Namur.

Oct. 11. Dissolution of parliament.

1695, Nov. 22-1698, July 5. Third parliament of William III. (first triennial parliament).

Whigs in majority. Recoinage act. Isaac Newton master of

the mint.

1696. Trials for treason act; two witnesses required to prove an overt act of treason.

Plot for the assassination of William, execution of conspirators. One of these, Fenwick, was condemned by bill of attainder, being the last person so condemned. Formation of a loyal association. Suspension of the habeas corpus act.

Sunderland, lord chamberlain; Somers, lord chancellor.

1697, Sept. 20. Peace of Ryswick (p. 371).

Dec. Sunderland retired.

William acknowledged by Louis XIV.

1698, Jan. Peter the Great of Russia in England.

1698. Spanish succession, see p. 390.

1698, Dec. 6-1700, Apr. 11. Fourth parliament of William III.

1699, Feb. Disbanding act, reducing the army to 7,000 men, exclusion of the foreign (Dutch) troops; annoyance of William.

Act for the resumption of forfeited Irish estates, aimed at William's Dutch favorites; the bill was fastened to a bill of supply. Act for preventing the growth of papacy; all persons refusing to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy forfeited their estates for life. Catholic school-teachers and priests were

liable to imprisonment for life (repealed 1778).

1700, April. Somers dismissed from office. Bombardment of Copen-

hagen by Rooke.

July. Death of the duke of Gloucester, the last of Anne's children.

1701, Feb. 6-June 24. Fifth parliament of William III. Tories in the majority. Robert Harley, speaker. Portland, Somers, Oxford (Russell), Halifax, impeached (April-June).

Earl of Marlborough commander-in-chief of the English forces.

June 12, 1701. Act of settlement.

The crown was settled on Sophia, princess of Hanover, grand-daughter of James I., and her issue.

The sovereigns of Great Britain should be Protestant and not leave the kingdom without consent of parliament; the country should not be involved in war for the defence of the foreign possessions of the sovereigns; no foreigner should receive a grant from the crown, or hold office, civil or military; ministers should be responsible for the acts of their sovereigns; judges should hold office for life unless guilty of misconduct.

1701, Sept. 7. The grand alliance, p. 391.

Sept. 16. Death of James II. James Edward proclaimed king of Great Britain and Ireland by Louis XIV.

1701, Dec. 30-1702, July 2. Sixth parliament of William III.
Attainder of the pretended prince of Wales. Oath of abjuration.

1702, March 8. Death of William III.

Chief authors of this period: Sir Thomas Browne (1605–1682); John Bunyan (1628–1688); Daniel Defoe (1661–1731); John Dryden (1631–1700); Edward Hyde, earl of Clarendon (1608–1674); John Locke (1632–1704); John Milton (1608–1674); Isaac Newton (1643–1727).

§ 6. INDIA.

1658–1707. Aurangzeb, Mughal emperor.

The first years of Aurangzeb's reign were occupied in subduing and putting to death his brothers. When freed from their rivalry he took up the conquest of the Deccan. Bidar, Ahmednagar, Ellichpur, he had conquered while his father reigned. For twentyfive years his generals warred unsuccessfully against Bijápur and Golconda, but when Aurangzeb placed himself at the head of his troops those kingdoms quickly fell. Bijápur and Golconda were annexed to the Mughal empire in 1688. It was not with the Muhammedan powers alone that Aurangzeb had to contend; a new power, the Hindu kingdom of the Mahrattas, had arisen in the Deccan. It was founded by a union of Hindu tribes of the Deccan under Sivaji (1627-1680), son of a Mahratta soldier of fortune who had fought under the Deccan kingdoms against the Mughals. Sivají, by alternately levying tribute on the Deccan kingdoms and assisting them against the Mughals, raised the Mahratta confederacy to be the ruling power in the Deccan. In 1664 he assumed the title of Rájá. He carried on a war with Aurangzeb, who captured and killed his son Sambhají (1680-1689), and imprisoned his grandson Sahu, until his own death, 1707. Aurangzeb, however, was far from subduing the confederacy, which had driven him almost to despair at the time of his death; the emperor was not more successful in Assam (1662), nor against the revolted Rájput states in the west (1677-1681) where he ravaged Jáipur, Jodhpur, and Udáipur without subduing them.

Aurangzeb's total revenue amounted to eighty million pounds.

1661. Bombay ceded to England as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza, but it was not delivered until 1665. In 1668 it was granted to the East India Company.

1670. Foundation of the Danish East India Company.

1681. Bengal separated from Madras.

890

1686. Foundation of Calcutta.

1687. Seat of western presidency transferred to Bombay.

§ 7. CHINA.

1661-1721. Kang-he

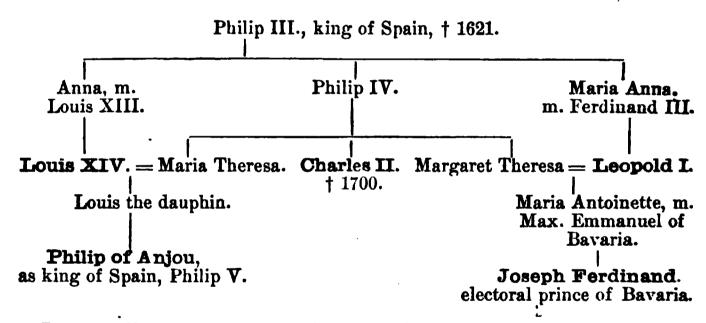
conquered *Thibet* and *Formosa* and carried on war with Russia (1684–1689). His reign was renowned for wise administration and for the cultivation of science and literature. French and English settled at *Canton*.

B. The eighteenth century to the French Revolution.

§ 1. WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.1

1701-1714.

The family relations which led to the war will be made clear by the following genealogical table.



Leopold I. had, besides his daughter *Maria Antoinette*, two sons: by his *second* marriage, **Joseph I.**, emperor from 1705–1711; by his *third* marriage, **Charles VI.**, emperor from 1711–1740.

Charles II., king of Spain, was childless; the extinction of the Spanish house of Hapsburg in the near future was certain; hence the question of the Spanish succession formed the chief occupation of all the European cabinets since the Peace of Ryswick. The question had two aspects: a. The legal, according to which there were three claimants: 1. Louis XIV., at once as son of the elder daughter of Philip III. and husband of the elder daughter of Philip IV. The solemn renunciations of both princesses were declared null and void by the parliament of Paris. 2. Leopold I., the representative of the German line of Hapsburg, as son of the younger daughter of Philip III., and husband of the younger daughter of Philip IV. Both princesses had expressly reserved their right of inheritance. 3. The electoral prince of Ba-

¹ Schlosser: Geschichte des 18 Jahrhunderts; V. Noorden: Europäische Gesch. im 18 Jahrhundert, vols. I. and II.

varia, as great-grandson of Philip IV., and grandson of the younger sister of the present possessor, Charles II. b. The political aspect with regard to the balance of power in Europe; in consideration of which the naval powers, England and Holland, would not permit the crown of the great Spanish monarchy to be united with the French, or to be worn by the ruler of the Austrian lands. On this account Leopold I. claimed the Spanish inheritance for his second son Charles only, while Louis XIV.'s claim was urged in the name of his second grandson, Philip of Anjou.

1698. First treaty of partition.

Oct. 11. Spain, Indies, and the Netherlands to the electoral prince of Bavaria; Naples and Sicily, seaports in Tuscany, and the province of Guipuzcoa, to the dauphin; the duchy of Milan, to archduke Charles.

The negotiations of the powers in regard to the succession, and the conclusion of a treaty of partition without the participation of Charles

II., provoked that monarch.

In order to preserve the unity of the monarchy he made the prince elector of Bavaria, then seven years old, sole heir of the whole inheritance; a settlement to which the naval powers agreed.

of France (Harcourt ambassador. Cardinal Portocarrero) and Austria at Madrid, while both parties were negotiating a new treaty of partition with the naval powers.

1700. Second treaty of partition.

Mar. 13. Spain and the Indies to archduke Charles; Naples and Sicily and the duchy of Lorraine to the dauphin; Milan to the duke of Lorraine in exchange.

Finally Charles II., although originally more inclined to the Austrian succession, signed a new will, making Louis' grandson, Philip of Anjou, heir. Immediately afterwards

1700. Charles II. died.

Nov. 1. Louis XIV. soon decided to follow the will rather than the treaty with England. The duke of Anjou was proclaimed as Philip V., and started for his new kingdom. ("Il n'y a plus de Pyrénées.") Death of James II., 1701; Louis recognized his son as king of England.

1701. Grand Alliance of the naval powers with the emperor Sept. 7. Leopold I., for the purpose, at first, of securing the Spanish possessions in the Netherlands and in Italy for the Austrian house, while France allied herself with the dukes of Savoy and Mantua, the electors of Bavaria and Cologne. The other estates of the empire, especially Prussia, joined the emperor. Portugal afterwards joined the grand alliance, and in 1703 Savoy did likewise, deserting France.

Three men were at the head of the grand alliance against France: Eugene, prince of Savoy, imperial general; Marlborough, English general, formerly John Churchill; A. Heinsius, after the death of William III., 1702, pensionary of Holland.

Spain, the real object of the war, had but little importance in the

campaigns, the chief seat of war being Italy, the Netherlands, and Germany.

Philip of Anjou was recognized in Spain as king Philip V. His

strongest support was in Castile.

1701. Commencement of the war by Eugene's invasion of Italy. Victory over Catinat at Carpi, over Villeroi at Chiari; the latter was captured at Cremona (1702).

Eugene and Vendôme fought a drawn battle at Luzzara (1702),

after which the French had the advantage in Italy until 1706.

1702, March 8. Death of William III. Anne, queen of England. 1703. The Bavarians invaded Tyrol, but were repulsed. Eugene went to Germany, along the Rhine. Marlborough invaded the Spanish Netherlands. The archduke Charles landed in Portugal, and invaded Catalonia. The English captured Gibraltar (1704).

1703. Victory of the French under Villars at Höchstädt over the Ba-

varians.

- 1704. Battle of Höchstädt and Blindheim (Blenheim), Aug. 13. (between Ulm and Donauworth), Bavarians and French (Tallard) defeated by Eugene and Marlborough.
- His son, Joseph I., emperor. Leopold I. died. 1706. Charles conquered Madrid but held it for a short time only.
- 1706, May 23. Victory of Marlborough at Ramillies over Villeroi. Submission of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Ostend, etc.
- Sept. 7. Victory of Eugene at Turin, over Marsin and the duke of Orleans with help of the Prussians under Leopold of Dessau. Submission of all Lombardy. Charles III. proclaimed at Milan. The French permanently excluded from Italy.
- 1708, July 11. Victory of Marlborough and Eugene at Oudenarde over Vendôme and the duke of Burgundy. Siege and surrender of Lille. Severe winter in France.

Negotiations for peace. Demands of the allies: surrender of the Spanish monarchy to Charles of Austria, and of the border fortresses of the Netherlands to the Hollanders; restoration of all matters relating to the empire and the emperor to the state prescribed in the peace of Westphalia, i. e. the cession of Strasburg, Brisach, etc. England insisted on the recognition of Anne and the Protestant succession (p. 388) and the banishment of the Pretender. These terms Louis was willing to accept, but when the demand was added that he should drive his grandson from Spain with French weapons, it was too much. The negotiations were broken off, Louis made a successful appeal to the people of France, and the war was continued.

1706. The French were again humbled by the victory of Sept. 11. Eugene and Marlborough at Malplaquet over Villars. The bloodiest battle of the war. The allies lost 20,000 men. New approaches on the part of Louis. Capture of Douai, Mons, etc. (1710). In Spain Philip, by the aid of Vendôme, had the advantage of Charles. The Spanish people favored Philip. Renewal of the negotiations at Gertruydenburg. Louis offered to pay subsidized troops against his grandson. The allies demanded that he should send his armies against Philip. Renewal of the war. Victories of Vendôme over the English (Brihuega, 1710) and the imperialists (Valla-viciosa, in Spain).

1710, Aug. Fall of the Whig ministry in England, and accession

of the enemies of Marlborough.

1711. Death of the Emperor Joseph, whereby Charles became heir of all the Austrian possessions, so that the monarchy of Charles V. would have been restored had the Spanish inheritance also devolved upon him. These events completely altered all the political relations, in favor of Louis XIV.

Marlborough removed from command, the Grand Alliance dissolved, preliminaries of peace between England and France. Death of the dauphin, of Adelaide of Savoy, her husband and their son,

the duke of Brittany.

1712. Victory of the French commander Villars at Denain over lord Albermarle. Recapture of Douai, Le Quesnoy, and Bouchain. Opening of the congress at Utrecht. Each of the allies presented his demands separately. Dissensions between the allies caused the conclusion of separate treaties of peace, which are comprehended under the name of the

1713. Peace of Utrecht.

April 11.

1. England: Recognition of the Protestant succession in England; confirmation of the permanent separation of the crowns of France and Spain. France ceded to England Newfoundland, Nova Scotia (Acadia), and Hudson Bay territory; Spain ceded to England Gibraltar, the island of Minorca, and the Asiento, or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with African slaves.

2. Holland: Surrender of the Spanish Netherlands to the republic of Holland, in order that they should be delivered to the Austrians, after the conclusion of a Barrier Treaty, in regard to the fortresses along the French border from Furnes to Namur, which were to be garrisoned by the Dutch. Lille restored to France. Demolition of

the fortifications of Dunkirk.

3. Savoy received the island of Sicily as a kingdom, and an advantageous change of boundary in Upper Italy, renounced its claims upon Spain, reserving, however, its right of inheritance in case the house of Bourbon should become extinct (p. 397).

4. Prussia received recognition of the royal title, and possession of Neuchâtel and the upper quarter of Gueldres. Prussia's claim upon the principality of Orange on the Rhône, was transferred to France.

5. Portugal obtained a correction of boundaries in South America. Philip V. (founder of the Spanish branch of the Bourbons) was

recognized as king of Spain and the colonies.

Reservations in the peace: 1. for the emperor, the possession of the appanages of the Spanish monarchy, the Netherlands, Milan, Naples, Sardinia, but not Sicily; 2. for the empire the status quo of the peace of Ryswick, only.

The emperor and the empire continued the war. Unsuccessful campaign of Eugene, who was wretchedly supported (1713). dau and Freiburg taken by Villars. After these losses the emperor concluded peace with France, in his own name at Rastadt, in that of the empire at Baden (in Switzerland).

1714. Peace of Rastadt and Baden.

March-Sept.

Austria took possession of the Spanish Netherlands, after the Barrière for Holland had been agreed upon, and retained Naples, Sardinia, and Milan, which she had already occupied. For the empire: ratification of the peace of Ryswick; the electors of Bavaria and Cologne who had been placed under the ban of the empire, were reinstated in their lands and dignities. Landau was left in the hands of France.

No peace between Spain and the emperor, who did not recognize the Bourbons in Spain.

§ 2. THE NORTHERN WAR.

1700-1721.

1689-1725. Peter I. the Great, Czar of Russia (p. 374).

1697-1718. Charles XII., king of Sweden.

In character the two monarchs formed a strong contrast: both were of unusual ability and power, but Peter, though passionate and of irregular life, was, in his political actions, governed by reason and calm reflection. Charles, in his private life passionless and of rigid morality, was under the control of passion and senseless obstinacy in all public relations. The steady purpose of Peter, who civilized his subjects by force, made Russia one of the great powers of Europe, Charles' blind obstinacy caused the decline of Sweden's power.

The causes of the northern war were: 1, the firm determination of Peter to make Russia a naval power, and to get possession of the harbors of the Baltic; 2, the attempt of Augustus II., elector of Saxony and king of Poland, to unite Livonia with Poland (Patkul); 3, the quarrel between Frederic IV., king of Denmark, and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, the early friend and brother-in-law of Charles XII.

The youthfulness of Charles, who had assumed the care of government at the age of fifteen, led all three monarchs to think it an easy task to regain possession of those lands which Sweden had taken from them. Secret alliance of Russia, Denmark, and Saxony against Sweden.

The war opened with an invasion of Schleswig by the Danes, while the Saxons attacked Livonia. Unexpected landing of Charles XII. in Zealand; he threatened Copenhagen and extorted from the Danes

1700 (Aug.). Peace of Travendal.

1. Indemnification of the duke of Holstein. 2. Denmark promised to abstain from hostilities against Sweden for the future. Meantime the Saxons were besieging Riga (in Livonia) in vain,

while Peter was besieging Narva (in Ingermannland) with like result. Landing of Charles XII. with 8,000 men and brilliant

1700. Victory of Narva,

Nov. 30.

over the Russians. Charles's hatred of Augustus led him to neglect his more dangerous opponent, the Czar, and to seek revenge upon the king of Poland. Meeting and closer alliance of Augustus and Peter. Charles crossed the Düna and

1701. defeated the Saxons at Riga. Charles invaded Lithuania. The republic of Poland was drawn into the war; alliance of the party of the Sapiehas with the Swedes. The city of Warsaw surrendered at the first summons.

Victory of Charles XII. over the Poles and Saxons at Klissow (1702) and at Pultusk (1703). Charles rejected all overtures of peace, caused Augustus to be deposed by that party among the Poles which had joined him and his adherent, the Woiwod

1704-1709. Stanislaus Lesczinski to be elected king.

Meanwhile Peter had founded his capital, St. Petersburg, in the

marshes of the Neva (1703), and captured Narva (1704).

Continuance of the war in Poland and Lithuania. Victory of Charles at *Punitz* (1704 Schulenburg's masterly retreat) and of his general *Rhenskjöld* at Fraustadt (1706). Charles invaded Saxony and compelled Augustus to sign the

1706. Peace of Altranstädt (near Leipzig).

1. Augustus II. abdicated the Polish crown, recognized Stanislaus Lesczinski as king of Poland, and sent him a written expression of good will. 2. Augustus abjured his alliance with the Czar, and delivered the plenipotentiary of the latter, Patkul, to Charles who had him executed with cruelty. 3. Saxony furnished provisions and

pay for the Swedish army during the winter.

In Sept., 1707, Charles took the field against Peter, who had well employed the interval in making conquests and establishing his power on the Baltic, and in forming a trained and veteran army. The approach to Moscow cut off by devastation of the country. Charles allowed himself to be misled by the Cossack hetman *Mazeppa*, who had deserted Peter, crossed the *Dnieper* (1708) into the *Ukraine*. Futile siege of *Pultowa*. Peter hastened to raise the siege and by force of numbers completely defeated the Swedes, who were exhausted by long marches and lack of food, in the 1709, July 8. Battle of Pultowa,

which established Peter's new creations on a firm basis, and destroyed at one blow the ascendency of Sweden. The Swedish army was completely broken up, and a large part of it captured.

Charles took refuge with the Turks.

1709-1714. Charles XII. in *Turkey*, endeavoring to induce the Porte to declare war against Peter. He was successful in 1711. Peter, allied with the *princes of the Moldau*, crossed the Dniester, was surrounded on the *Pruth*, and was obliged to buy the

1711. Peace of the Pruth from the Turks by bribery, upon the

advice of his wife Catherine.

1. Azoff given back to the Porte. 2. The king of Sweden allowed to return to his realm unmolested.

Charles XII., indignant at this peace, refused to depart, and for three years more misused the patience and hospitality of the Turks at Bender, Bessarabia, now belonging to Russia, and in Demotika. Senseless defense of his camp against a whole army, when the attempt was made to force his departure (1713). Meantime his enemies were making good use of the time. Augustus II. drove king Stanislaus from Poland; the Danes tried to reconquer the southern provinces of Sweden, but were repulsed. Peter the Great occupied all of Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermannland, Carelia, Finland. The Convention of the Hague (1710), in order to keep the war away from the German boundaries, had established the neutrality of all the German provinces of Sweden, as well as of Schleswig and Jütland. Charles XII., however, having from his retreat in Turkey protested against this treaty, the Danes took Schleswig away from the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, and conquered the Swedish duchies of Bremen and Verden (1712), which they afterwards (1715) sold to Hanover upon condition that that state should take part in the war against Sweden. The Swedish general Stenbock defeated the Danes and burnt Altona, but was captured by the Russians at Tönningen (1713). The Danes and Poles invaded Pommerania, the Prussians occupied Stettin.

1714. Charles XII. at last returned to his kingdom. Adventurous journey through Hungary and Germany. The king reached Stralsund. Alliance between Prussia, Saxony, Denmark, Hanover, Russia, against Sweden. Stralsund and with it all Pommerania lost (1715), Wismar soon captured also (1716).

1716. Peter I. made a journey to Denmark, Holland, France.

Charles XII. negotiated with Peter I. through Baron von Görz, who, in spite of the hatred borne him by the Swedish nobles, was placed in control of the internal administration of Sweden. Three expeditions of the Swedes to Norway; on the third,

1718. Charles XII. was shot in front of Friedrichshall, prob-Dec. 11. ably by an assassin.

After limits had been set on the royal power in the interests of the royal council, Charles's nephew was passed over, and his youngest sister,

1719. Ulrica Eleanora, raised to the throne. She soon placed the control of the government in the hands of her husband,

1720-1751. Frederic of Hesse-Cassel.

Execution of the Baron von Görz, Charles's intimate. The northern war was ended by a series of treaties concluded at Stockholm and Friedrichsburg.

1. With Hanover (1719), which retained Bremen and Verden, and paid Sweden one million thalers. 2. With Prussia (1720), which received Stettin, western Pommerania as far as the Peene, the islands of Wollin and Usedom, and paid two million thalers, 3. With Den-

mark, which restored all its conquests. In return Sweden paid 600,000 rix dollars, gave up its freedom from custom duties in the Sound and abandoned the duke of *Holstein-Gottorp*, whom Denmark deprived of his share of Schleswig. 4. With Poland the truce of 1719 was continued.

- 1721. Aug. 30. Peace of Nystadt between Sweden and Russia.
- 1. Sweden ceded to Russia, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermannland, part of Carelia, and a number of islands, among others Oesel, Dagö. 2. Russia restored Finland and paid two million rix dollars.

§ 3. GERMANY.

1705-1711. Joseph I., son of Leopold. He was succeeded by his brother

1711-1740. Charles VI.,

War of the Spanish Succession, p. 390.

1713-1740. Frederic William I., son of Frederic I., king of Prussia, by wise economy, a military severity, and the establishment of a formidable army, laid the foundation of the future power of Prussia. Maintenance of a standing army of 83,000 men, with a population of two and a half million inhabitants. Prince Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau ("the old Dessauan").

1714-1718. War of Turks with Venice, and after 1716 with the emperor. Easy conquest of *Morea* by the Turks; the Venetians, however, kept *Corfu*. In Hungary the war was brilliantly conducted by prince Eugene. Victory of Peterwardein (1716). Victory, siege, and capture of Belgrade (1717).

1718. July 21. Peace of Passarowitz (Posharewatz).

1. Austria received the Bannat of Temesvar, a part of Servia, with Belgrade and Little Wallachia. 2. Venice retained her con-

quests, in Dalmatia, but ceded Morea to the Porte.

The seizure of Sardinia (1717) and Sicily (1718) by Spain, where Elizabeth of Parma, the second wife of Philip V., and her favorite the minister and cardinal Alberoni, were planning to regain the Spanish apparages lost by the Peace of Utrecht, brought about the 1718. Quadruple alliance for the maintenance of the Peace of Aug. 2. Utrecht, between France, England, the emperor, and (since 1719) the Republic of Holland.

After a short war and the fall of Alberoni, who went to Rome († 1752), the agreements of the quadruple alliance were executed in

1720. 1. Spain evacuated Sicily and Sardinia, and made a renunciation of the appanages forever, in return for which the emperor recognized the Spanish Bourbons. 2. Savoy was obliged to exchange Sicily (p. 393) for Sardinia. After this time the dukes of Savoy called themselves kings of Sardinia.

The emperor Charles VI. was without male offspring. His principal endeavor throughout his whole reign was to secure the various

lands which were united under the sceptre of Austria against division after his death. Hence he established an order of succession under the name of the

Pragmatic Sanction,

which decreed that: 1. The lands belonging to the Austrian empire should be indivisible; 2. That in case male heirs should fail, they should devolve upon Charles's daughters, the eldest of whom was Maria Theresa, and their heirs according to the law of primogeniture; 3. In case of the extinction of this line the daughters of Joseph I. and their descendants were to inherit.

To secure the assent of the various powers to this pragmatic sanction was the object of numerous diplomatic negotiations. A special alliance between Austria and Spain (1725), in regard to this measure, produced the alliance of Herrenhausen, in the same year, between England, France, and Prussia in opposition. Prussia soon withdrew from the alliance and joined Austria by the Treaty of Wusterhausen. The alliance between Austria and Spain was also of short duration.

1733-1735. War of the Polish Succession, after the death of Augustus II.

Cause: The majority of the Polish nobles, under the influence of France, elected Stanislaus Lesczinski, who had become the father-in-law of Louis XV., king, a second time. Russia and Austria induced a minority to choose Augustus III., elector of Saxony (son of Augustus II.), and supported the election by the presence of troops in Poland. France, Spain, and Sardinia took up arms for Stanislaus.

The seat of war was at first in *Italy*, where *Milan*, *Naples*, and *Sicily* were conquered, and the Austrians lost everything except *Milan*, and afterwards on the upper *Rhine*, where the old prince Eugene fought unsuccessfully, and *Francis Stephen*, duke of Lorraine, the future husband of **Maria Theresa**, alone upheld the honor of the imperial arms. *Lorraine* occupied by the French. *Kehl* captured. Preliminaries of peace (1735), and, after long negotiations,

1738. Nov. 18. Peace of Vienna.

1. Stanislaus Lesczinski made a renunciation of the Polish throne, receiving as compensation the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, which at his death should devolve upon France. Stanislaus died 1766.

2. The duke of Lorraine, Francis Stephen, received an indemnification in Tuscany, whose ducal throne had become vacant by the extinction of the family of Medici, 1737 (p. 417).

3. Austria ceded Naples and Sicily, the island of Elba and the Stati degli Presidi to Spain as a secundogeniture for Don Carlos, so that these lands could never be united with the crown of Spain, receiving in exchange Parma and Piacenza, which Don Carlos had inherited in 1731 upon the death of the last Farnese, his great-uncle.

4. France guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction.

1736-1739. Unsuccessful war with the Turks in alliance with Russia (p. 411). By the Peace of Belgrade Orsowa, Belgrade, Servia, and Little Wallachia were restored to the Turks.

May. Death of Frederic William I. of Prussia.

Francis Joseph I. m. Elizabeth of Bavaria.

Ferdinand
(Maximilian I.,
emperor of Mexico),
† 1867.

Charles.

Lewia.

Leopold II. grand duke of Tuscany.

Ferdinand IV., last grand duke of Tuscany.

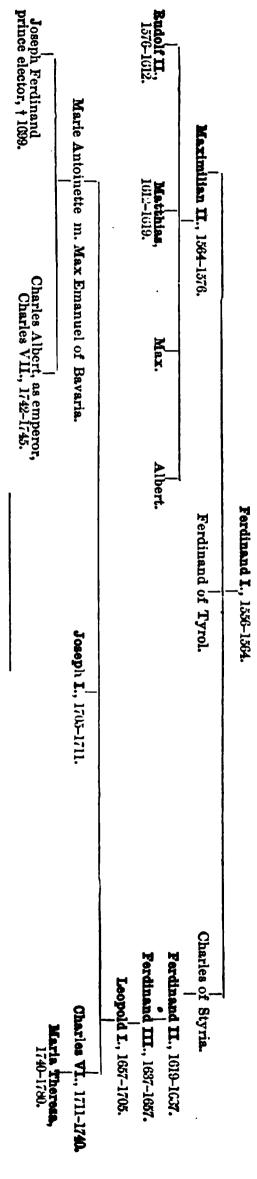
Gisela.

Rudolf.

Maria.

GERMAN BRANCH OF THE HOUSE OF HAPSBURG.

Compare the Genealogical Table at p. 301.



HOUSE OF LORRAINE AND TUSCANY.

Francis I., grand duke of Tuscany 1737, emperor 1745-1765, m. Maria Theresa, daughter of Charles VI. the last Hapsburg

Maria Louisa, m. Napoleon I., duchess of Parma, † 1847. Joseph II., 1765-1790. Francis II. (I.), emperor 1792–1806, emperor of Austria 1806–1835. Perdinand I., 1835–1848, † 1875. Francis Charles, m. Sophia of Bavaria. Ferdinand, grand duke of Tuscany, † 1824. Leopold II., grand duke of Tuscany since 1765, emperor 1790-1792 Charles, Albert. Joseph, John, adminstrator of the empire, 1848-1849, Lewis, † 1864. Ferdinand, m. the heiress of Modens. Francis IV., duke of Modena. Francis V. Ferdinand expelled in 1859.

1740-1786. Frederic II. the Great (twenty-eight years

Born in 1712, received a French education under Madame de Rocoulles and Duhan de Jandun; musical (Quanz). After the frustration of the projected marriage with a daughter of George II. of England, estrangement between the king and the crown prince. Frederic attempted flight, was captured, and sentenced to Küstrin as a deserter (execution of Katte) where he found employment in the Chamber of War and of Domain. Marriage with a princess of Brunswick-Bevern (1733). Correspondence with Voltaire. Residence at Rheinsberg and Ruppin until 1740. From his accession to his death he was himself the ruler.

1740, Oct. With the death of Charles VI. the male line of the Hapsburgs was extinct.1

1740-1780. Maria Theresa,

queen of Bohemia and Hungary, archduchess of Austria, etc., married Francis Stephen of the house of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuscany (co-regent).

1740-1748. War of the Austrian Succession.

Cause: The following claimants for the Austrian inheritance appeared: 1. Charles Albert, elector of Bavaria, who had never recognized the Pragmatic Sanction, a descendant of Anna, the eldest daughter of Ferdinand I. He based his claim upon the marriage contract of Anna, and will of Ferdinand I., whereby the Austrian inheritance was (he claimed) secured to the descendants of Anna, in case the male descendants of her brother should become extinct. (The original will, however, read, in case the legitimate descendants of her brother became extinct.) 2. Philip V., king of Spain, relying on a treaty between Charles V. and his brother Ferdinand on occasion of the cession of the German lands, and upon a reservation made by Philip III. in his renunciation of the German lands. 3. Augustus III. of Saxony, the husband of the eldest daughter of Joseph I.

The claims advanced by Frederic II. to a part of Silesia, and his desire to annex the whole of Silesia to his kingdom, the rejection of the offer which he made at Vienna to take the field in favor of Austria if his claims were recognized, brought about, before the commencement

of hostilities by the other claimants, the

First Silesian War.² 1740-1742.

Legal claims of Prussia to a portion of Silesia: 8 1. The principality of Jägerndorf was purchased in 1524 by a younger branch of the electoral line of Hohenzollern, and the future acquisition of Ratibor and

<sup>See the genealogical table, p 399.
A supplement to the Prussian view of the relations of Frederic and the courts</sup> of Vienna and Paris will be found in the papers by the Duc de Broglie in the Revue des Deux Mondes, published separately as Frederic II. and Maria

⁸ Eichhorn, Deutsche Staats-und Rechtsgeschichte, iv. § 583.

Oppeln secured at the same time, by an hereditary alliance. In 1623 duke John George was placed under the ban by the emperor Ferdinand II. (p. 309), as an adherent of Frederic V., the elector palatine, and in spite of the Peace of Westphalia (p. 316, B.) neither he nor his heirs had been reinstated. 2. The elector Joachim II. had made an hereditary alliance in 1537 with the duke of Liegnitz, Brieg and Wohlau, which Ferdinand I. had forbidden as king of Bohemia and feudal superior of the duke. After the extinction of the ducal house (1675) Austria took possession of the inheritance. In 1686 Frederic William, the Great Elector, renounced the Silesian duchies, in return for the cession of the circle of Schwiebus. The latter, however, was secured to Austria by a secret agreement with the prince elector, and was restored by him, as elector Frederic III., in 1696.

Occupation of Silesia by Frederic's troops. Capture of Glo-

gau.

1741, April 10. Victory of Mollwitz (Schwerin).

Secret alliance of Nymphenburg 1 against Austria concluded by France, Bavaria, and Spain, afterwards joined by Saxony,

and lastly by Prussia.

The allied French (Belle-Isle) and Bavarian army invaded Austria and Bohemia. Prague taken in alliance with the Saxons. Charles Albert caused himself to be proclaimed archduke in Linz, while Frederic II. received homage in Silesia. Charles Albert was elected emperor in Frankfort as

1742-1745. Charles VII.

Meantime Maria Theresa had gone to Hungary. Presburg; enthusiasm of the Hungarian nobility; 2 two armies raised; alliance concluded with England. An Austrian army conquered Bavaria where Maria Theresa received the homage of Munich; a second besieged the French in Prague.

1742. The victory of Frederic at Czaslau and Chotusitz, and Maria Theresa's desire to rid herself of a dangerous enemy led to May 17. the separate

1742, June and July. Peace of Breslau and Berlin between Austria and Prussia: 1. Frederic withdrew from the alliance against Maria Theresa. 2. Austria ceded to Prussia upper and lower Silesia and the county of Glatz, retaining only the principality of Teschen and the southwestern part of the principalities of Neisse, Troppau, and Jägerndorf, the Oppa forming the boundary. 3. Prussia assumed the debt upon Silesia held by English and Dutch creditors, to the amount of 1,700,000 rix dollars.

Austria prosecuted the war against the allies with success, driving

¹ J. G. Droysen, Abhandlungen (zur neueren Geschichte) 1876, claimed that the document which was published as the Traité de Nymphenbourg was a forgery; Schlosser and L. v. Ranke consider it genuine. Be that as it may it is certain that new engagements (according to Flassan, Hist. de la dipl., a formal Traité d'alliance offensive) were entered into at Nymphenburg by Barraria and France and also that a treaty was concluded between France and varia and France, and also that a treaty was concluded between France and

² The truth of the well-known tale of the exclamation Moriamur pro rege nos-

tro Maria Theresa is, however, disputed, on good grounds.
26

them entirely out of Bohemia, in 1742, and Bavaria (1743); the pragmatic army (English, Hanoverians, Hessians), under king George II., defeated the French in the

1743. Battle of Dettingen. The emperor Charles VII. was a ref-

June 27. ugee in Frankfort.

These Austrian successes and the treaties with Sardinia and Saxony in 1743 made the king of Prussia anxious about his new acquisitions. He concluded a second alliance with Charles VII. and France, and began the

1744-1745. Second Silesian War,

by forcing his way through Saxony with 80,000 men ("imperial reinforcements"), and invading Bohemia. He took Prague, but, deserted by the French, was soon driven back into Saxony, 1744.

744. East Friesland, upon the extinction of the reigning house, fell

to Prussia (p. 368).

1745. Alliance between Austria, Saxony, England, and Holland Jan. against Prussia. The French and Bavarians took Munich. Charles VII. died (1745, Jan.).

His son Maximilian Joseph concluded the

1745, April. Separate Peace of Füssen, with Austria. 1. Austria restored all conquests to Bavaria. 2. The elector of Bavaria surrendered his pretensions to Austria and promised Francis Joseph, the husband of Maria Theresa, his vote at the imperial election.

The French under marshal Maurice of Saxony, son of Augustus II. and the countess Aurora of Königsmark, defeated the pragmatic army in the

1745, May 11. Battle of Fontenoy (Irish Brigade), and began the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands.

Frederic the Great defeated the Austrians and Saxons under Charles of Lorraine in the

1745, June 4. Battle of Hohenfriedberg, in Silesia, and the Austrians alone in the

Sept. 30. Battle of Soor, in northeastern Bohemia.

By the election of the husband of Maria Theresa as emperor, the

1745-1806. House of Lorraine-Tuscany (p. 399) acceded to the imperial throne in the person of the emperor,

1745-1765. Francis I.

After a victory of the Prussian general, Leopold of Dessau, over the Saxons at Kesseldorf, Dec. 15, the

1745, Dec. 25. Peace of Dresden was concluded between Prussia and Austria (Saxony).

1. Ratification of the Peace of Breslau and Berlin in regard to the possession of Silesia. 2. Frederic II. recognized Francis I. as emperor. 3. Saxony paid Prussia one million rix dollars.

After the flower of the English army had been recalled to England, where they were needed in the contest with the pretenders (p. 440), the Marshal of Saxony won at Raucoux (1746) a second victory

over the allies of Austria and completed the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands.

At the same time, the naval war between France and England, and the war in Italy between Spain, France, and Austria, were carried on with varying fortune. Sardinia had concluded peace with Austria as early as 1743. At last the empress of Russia, Elizabeth (p. 411), joined the combatants as the ally of Austria and sent an army to the Rhine. Congress, and finally,

1748, Oct. Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

1. Reciprocal restoration of all conquests. 2. Cession of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to the Spanish Infant, Don Philip, making the second secundogeniture of the Spanish Bourbons in Italy.

The following guaranties were given: that Silesia should belong to Prussia; that the *pragmatic sanction* should be sustained in Austria; that the house of Hanover should retain the succession in its German states and in Great Britain.

Change in the relations of European states induced by the rise of Prussia to the rank of a great power. Envy between Prussia and Austria; the latter seeing a disgrace in the loss of Silesia to a smaller power, and intriguing for the recovery of the lost province. Thus began the

1756-1763. Third Silesian, or Seven Years' War.

Cause: Before the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle Maria Theresa had concluded a defensive alliance with Frederic's personal enemy, Elizabeth, empress of Russia (May, 1746). Secret articles of this treaty provided for the reunion of Silesia with Austria under certain specified conditions. In Sept. 1750, George II. of England, moved by anxiety for his principality of Hanover, signed the main treaty, the secret articles being excepted. Saxony (minister, count Brühl) signed the treaty unconditionally. Prince Kaunitz (until 1753 Austrian ambassador in France, then chancellor of the empire in Vienna) succeeded in promoting a reconciliation between the cabinets of Versailles and Vienna, and securing the Marquise de Pompadour in favor of an Austrian alliance. Formation of a party inimical to the Prussian alliance at the French court.

Maria Theresa and Kaunitz induced England to conclude a new subsidy treaty with Russia in 1755. In June of the same year, however, hostilities broke out between England and France in North America without any declaration of war. Conflict at Newfoundland. Dreading a French attack upon Hanover, George II. concluded, in January, 1756, a treaty of neutrality with Frederic at Westminster, which caused a rupture between England and Russia. Kaunitz made skillful use of the indignation at Versailles over the treaty of Westminster. In May, 1756, conclusion of a defensive alliance between France and Austria. In June, 1756, war broke out between France and England, in Europe.

Frederic, well informed concerning the alliances of the powers, and knowing that Russia and France were not in condition to take the of-

fensive against him in 1756, decided to take his enemies by surprise.1 1756. Frederic invaded Saxony with 67,000 men. Capture of Dresden (Aug.).

Victory over the Austrians at Lobositz.

Surrender of 18,000 Saxons, who were compelled to serve in

the Prussian army (Oct. 16).

1757. War declared upon Frederic in the name of the empire. He was threatened with the ban. Hanover, Hesse, Brunswick, and Gotha, however, continued in alliance with Prussia. Treaty between Austria and Russia (Jan.) concerning the partition of the Prussian monarchy. Offensive treaty between Austria and France (May), also looking to the division of Prussia. Sweden joined the alliance against Frederic upon receiving the province of Pommerania, but her part in the war was unimportant. Alliance between Prussia and England (Jan. 1757) extended into a subsidy treaty (April, 1758).

1757. The Prussians invaded Bohemia in four columns.

May 6. Victory of Frederic at Prague over the Austrians. Death of Schwerin. Frederic besieged Prague and attacked Daun, who was coming to the relief.

June 18. Defeat of Frederic at Kollin. Evacuation of Bohemia.

The French reached the Weser.

June 26. Victory of the French at Hastenbeck over Frederic's allies (duke of Cumberland, second son of George II.).

Aug. 30. Victory of the Russians (Apraxin) over the Prussians (Lehwald), whom they outnumbered, in the battle of Grossjägerndorf. The Russians withdrew from Prussia and did not utilize their victory.

Sept. 8. Treaty of the Monastery of Zeven (duke of Cumberland and Richelieu), according to which the French occupied Hanover. The treaty was, however, rejected by the English gov-

ernment.

Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick, brother of the ruling duke, received the command against the French. A second French army under Soubise joined the imperial army with the purpose of liberating Saxony.

Nov. 5. Victory of Frederic at Rossbach over the French and

the imperial army (Seydlitz).

Frederic led his victorious army to Silesia, where the Austrians had defeated and captured the duke of Brunswick-Bevern in the

Nov. 22. Battle of Breslau.

Victory of Frederic at Leuthen over the Austrians

(Charles of Lorraine and Daun).

- Frederic in Moravia; unsuccessful siege of Olmütz. Advance of the Russians under Fermor, to join the Austrians. In the west, Ferdinand of Brunswick drove the French back across the Rhine, and defeated them in the
- ¹ Cf. A. Schäfer, Gesch. des Siebenjährigen Krieges, 2 vols. 1867-1874. Duncker, in v. Sybels, Hist.-Zeits. 1868, aud L. v. Ranke, Der Ursprung des siebenjährigen Krieges, 1871.

- 1758, June 23. Battle of Crefeld. After the conquest of Prussia as far as the Mark the Russians advanced. Bloody
- Aug. 25. Victory of Frederic (Seydlitz) at Zorndorf (not far from Küstrin) over the Russians.

Austrians advanced upon Lusatia. The king hastened to the aid of his brother Henry and was defeated in the

- Oct. 14. Battle of Hochkirch (near Bautzen) by Daun. Nevertheless he maintained himself in Saxony and Silesia.
- 1759. Ferdinand of Brunswick defeated by the French (duke of Broglie)
- April 13. In the skirmish of Bergen near Frankfort-on-the-Main.

 Broglie was joined by a second French army under Contades,
 but they were both defeated by Ferdinand in the
- Aug. 1. Battle of Minden.
- The Russians advanced anew and defeated general Wedell July 23. (appointed dictator by the king) at Kay. The king was unable to prevent their union with the Austrians under Laudon. Severe
- Aug. 12. Defeat of Frederic at Kunersdorf (Frankforton-the-Oder) by the Austrians and Russians, who were at first defeated. Dresden captured by the imperial army.
- Nov. 20. The Prussian general Fink surrounded by Daun at Maxen and captured with 13,000 men.
- 1760. Fouqué defeated and captured in the
- June 23. Battle of Landshut, by the Austrians. Futile siege of Dresden.
- Aug. 15. Victory of Frederic at Pfaffendorf (Liegnitz) over the Austrians under Laudon.
 - The king prevented the union of the Austrians and Russians.
- Oct. Berlin surprised and burnt by the Russians (Tottleben), who retreated upon the approach of the king. Bloody
- Nov. 3. Victory of Frederic at Torgau (Ziethen) over the Austrians under Daun.
- 1761. Frederic encamped at Bunzelwitz (near Schweidnitz), opposite the united Austrians (Laudon) and Russians (Buturlin), who did not venture on a decisive battle.
- Separation of the united armies. Schweidnitz captured by the Austrians, Kolberg by the Russians. Frederic, who was deprived of the English subsidies by the accession of George III. (1760), was in great distress. The
- 1762, Jan. 5. Death of Elizabeth of Russia was the salvation of Prussia. Her successor Peter III., an admirer of Frederic, concluded
- March 16. The truce of Stargard with Prussia, and soon after the
- May 5. Peace of St. Petersburg: Russia restored her conquests; both parties renounced all hostile alliances. This peace caused the
- May 22. Peace of Hamburg with Sweden: status quo ante bellum.

 The alliance between Russia and Prussia was soon broken off

by the deposition of *Peter III*. (July 9). His successor, Catharine II., recalled her troops from Frederic's army; nevertheless their inactivity upon the field contributed to the

1762. Victory of Frederic at Burkersdorf (Reichenbach) over

July 21. the Austrians (Daun). After Prince Henry in the

Oct. 29. Battle of Freiberg had defeated the Austrians and the imperial forces, and the preliminaries of the peace at Fontaine-bleau (p. 439) between England and France had made it certain that the French armies would be withdrawn from Germany, Austria and Prussia concluded the

1763. Peace of Hubert(u)sburg.

Feb. 15. 1. Ratification of the peace of Breslau and Berlin, and that of Dresden, i. e. Prussia retained Silesia. 2. Prussia promised her vote for the archduke Joseph at the election of the king of Rome. Saxony (restoration to the status quo) and the empire were included

in the peace.

Frederic's endeavors to heal the wounds inflicted by the war upon his kingdom. Distribution of the magazine stores. Remission of taxes for several provinces. Establishment of district banks, of the Bank (1765) and the Maritime Company (1772) at Berlin. Afterwards, however, introduction of an oppressive financial administration; tobacco and coffee were made government monopolies.

Drainage of the marshes along the Oder, Werthe, and Netze.

Canal of Plauen, Finow, and Bromberg.

Reform of the jurisdiction. Codification of the common law by grand chancellor von Carmer, a part of which was published in 1784.

1765-1790. Joseph II., emperor,

for the Austrian lands co-regent only, with his mother *Maria Theresa*, until 1780, and without much influence.

1778-1779. War of the Bavarian Succession.1

Cause: Extinction of the electoral house of Bavaria with Maximilian Joseph (1777). Charles Theodore, elector palatine, the legal heir of the Bavarian lands, as head of the house of Wittelsbach, and in consequence of various treaties, was persuaded by Joseph II. to recognize certain old claims of Austria to lower Bavaria, and a part of the upper Palatinate. Treaty of Vienna (1778, Jan.). Occupation of lower Bavaria by Austrian troops. Charles Theodore was childless; his heir presumptive was Charles Augustus Christian, duke of the palatinate of Zweibrücken (Deux-ponts). Frederic II. opened secret negotiations with this wavering and irresolute prince through count Eustachius von Görz and encouraged him, under promise of assistance, to make a formal declaration of his rights against the Austrian claims. Saxony and Mecklenburg, also incited by Frederic, protested as heirs presumptive of a part of the Bavarian inheritance. As direct negotiations between Austria and Prussia were without result, Joseph and Frederic joined their armies, which were already drawn up face to face on the boundary of Bohemia and Silesia.

Saxony allied with Prussia. No battle in this short war. Frederic

1 Cf. Manso, Gesch. d. preuss. Staats seit dem Hubertsb. Frieden.

and prince Henry invaded Bohemia (July, 1778). Impossibility of forcing Joseph from his strong position along the upper Elbe, or of getting around it. The armies maintained their positions of observation so long that want began to make itself felt. In the autumn prince Henry retired to Saxony, Frederic to Silesia. Unimportant skirmishes along the frontier. A personal correspondence between Maria Theresa and Frederic, commenced by the former, led in the following spring, with the help of Russian and French mediation, to a truce and a congress, and soon after to the

1779, May. Peace of Teschen.

1. The treaty of Vienna with Charles Theodore was abrogated. Austria retained only the district of the Inn, in Bavaria, i. e. the part of lower Bavaria between the Inn, Salza, and Danube. 2. Austria agreed to the future union of the margravates of Ansbach and Baireuth, with the Prussian monarchy. 3. Saxony obtained some hitherto disputed rights of sovereignty and nine million rix dollars; Mecklenburg the privilegium de non appellando.

1780–1790. Joseph II. Period of his reign alone and of his attempts at reform.¹

The peaceable and prudent government of Maria Theresa († 1780), with its carefully matured scheme of reform, was succeeded by the essentially revolutionary reign of Joseph II., whereby the ancient forms were shaken to their foundations, and their substance, reluctant and stiff from lack of change, forcibly subjected to experiments made in sympathy with the enlightenment of the century. Joseph II. is the best representative of the contradictions of the eighteenth century, of its philanthropy and its devotion to right, and again of its severity and lack of consideration, where there was question of executing some favorite theory. Filled with dislike of the clergy and the nobility, and entertaining the ideal of a strong, centralized, united state, Joseph pursued his reforms with the purpose of breaking the power of the privileged classes mentioned above, of destroying all provincial independence, and of establishing unity in the administration (centralization). Despite of all his failures, despite of the fact that, with the exception of the abolition of serfdom and the edict of tolerance, not one of his reforms outlived him, Joseph's reign regenerated the Austrian monarchy, lending it mobility and vitality.

Edict of tolerance (1781). Within eight years 700 monasteries were closed and 36,000 members of orders released. There still remained, however, 1,324 monasteries with 27,000 monks and nuns. For those which remained a new organization was prescribed. The connection of the ecclesiastical order with Rome was weakened, schools were established with the property of the churches, innovations in the form of worship were introduced, nor did the interior organization of the church escape alteration. Futile journey of Pope Pius VI. to Vienna (1782) undertaken to prevent these changes. Reform of the jurisdiction. The feudal burdens were reduced to fixed norms, and attempts were made to completely abolish personal servitude among the peasants.

¹ Häusser, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs d. Grossen.

Disputes between Joseph and the Dutch; the emperor arbitrarily annulled the barrier treaties (p. 393) (1781). He demanded that the Schelde, which had been closed by the Treaty of Westphalia to the Spanish Netherlands, in favor of the Dutch, should be opened. Finally, after four years of quarreling, French mediation brought about the Peace of Versailles (1785). Joseph withdrew his demands in consideration of ten million florins.

Joseph attempted to improve the legal system of the empire. His encroachments in the empire. Violent proceedings in the case of the

bishop of Passau (1783).

The endeavors of Frederic the Great to conclude a union of German princes (1783), which should resist the encroachments of the emperor, and to strengthen Prussia in her political isolation by a "combination within the empire," were at first but coldly supported by his own ministers and the German princes. Frederic's plan was not taken into favor until news was received of

1785. Joseph II.'s plan of an exchange of territory, according to which Charles Theodore was to cede the whole of Bavaria to Austria, and accept in exchange the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium), excepting Luxemburg and Namur, as the kingdom of Burgundy. France maintained an attitude of indifference. Russia supported the project and endeavored by persuasion and threats to induce the heir of Bavaria, the count palatine of Zweibrücken (Deuxponts) to consent to the scheme. The latter sought help from Frederic the Great, who, a year before his death († 1786, Aug. 17), succeeded in forming the

1785, July. League of the German Princes

between Prussia, the electorate of Saxony, and Hanover, which was afterward joined by Brunswick, Mainz, Hesse-Cassel, Baden, Meck-

lenburg, Anhalt, and the Thuringian lands.

Opposition to Joseph's reforms in the Austrian Netherlands and in Hungary. The removal of the crown of Hungary to Vienna produced so great a disturbance that the emperor yielded and permitted its return. The revocation of the constitution of Brabant caused a revolt in the Belgian provinces (1789). War with the Turks (p. 414). Death of Joseph II. (1790).

1790-1792. Leopold II., emperor.

Joseph's brother and successor. He suppressed the Belgian insurrection, but restored the old constitution and the old privileges. A conference at *Reichenbach* prevented a war with *Prussia*, which (Jan. 31, 1790) had concluded a treaty with the Turks, in order to procure more favorable conditions for the latter from Austria and Russia (p. 414).

§ 4. DENMARK, SWEDEN, RUSSIA, POLAND.

Denmark (and Norway).

Since the close of the northern war, Denmark held complete possession of Schleswig and enjoyed under Frederic IV., Christian VI., Frederic V., Christian VII. (count Bernstorff, minister), a long interval of peace at home and abroad. Under the weak Christian VII. revolutionary attempts at reform after the manner of Joseph II. by the German Struensee (born in Halle, physician in Altona, traveling companion of the king, instructor of the crown prince, favorite of the queen, Caroline Matilda, first minister, count, who was overthrown in 1772 by a conspiracy (queen dowager Juliana Maria) and beheaded along with his friend Brandt. The disputes with the line of Holstein-Gottorp were brought to an end in 1773 by the cession of Oldenburg to the younger line in exchange for their share of Holstein, which was in consequence entirely incorporated with the Danish monarchy.

Sweden.

Until 1751 Sweden was under the rule of Frederic of Hesse-Cassel (p. 397). Decline of the royal power in the midst of the dissensions of two parties of the nobility, Hüte, "hats;" (French) and Mutzen "caps;" (Russian). Unsuccessful war with Russia (1741–1743), ended by the disgraceful

1743. Peace of Åbo.

1. The Cymen made the boundary between Sweden and Russia, whereby the position of St. Petersburg was made more secure. 2. The succession to the crown of Sweden was guaranteed to Adolf Frederic of Holstein-Gottorp.

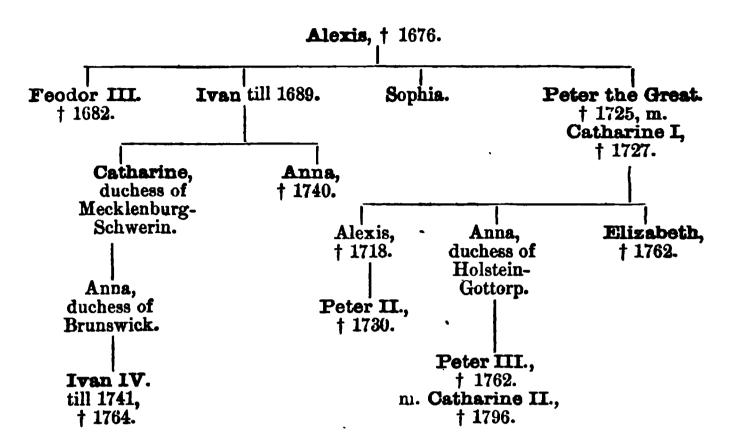
1751-1818. The house of Holstein-Gottorp in Sweden.

Under Adolf Frederic (1751-1771) the royal power underwent such reductions at the hands of the royal council that Sweden was rather an aristocracy than a monarchy. Inglorious participation in the Seven Years' War. Adolf Frederic's son, Gustavus III. (1771-1792), crushed the power of the royal council of nobles by a bloodless revolution (1772), and reduced it in the new constitution from a co-regent to a simple council; the estates, however, retained the right of veto against an offensive war.

1788-1790. War with Russia. Drawn battle at the island of Hogland (1788). Gustavus invaded Russian Finland, where the officers of his army refused him further obedience. He found support among the people (Stockholm and Dalecarlia). The estates granted him (against the will of the nobles) the right to declare even an offensive war. In spite of brilliant deeds of arms Gustavus concluded the war by a peace (at Werelæ) which was without advantage to Sweden.

1792, March. Gustavus III. murdered by James of Ankarström.

RUSSIA AND POLAND.



The son of Peter the Great (p. 374 and 394), Alexis, who favored the Russian reaction, was condemned to execution by his father, and died in prison (?) 1718. Peter was succeeded, in consequence of a law which he had issued in 1722 (afterwards repealed by Paul I.) which allowed the reigning sovereign to appoint his own successor, by his wife

1725-1727. Catharine I., who was governed by prince Menschikoff, the favorite of Peter I., who had risen from the lowest rank to be the first minister of state. After the sudden death of the empress there followed, under her will,

1727-1730. Peter II., twelve years old, grandson of Peter I. He was for four months under the influence of *Menschikoff*, who at the end of that time was overthrown by the family of *Dolgoruky* and sent to Siberia, where he died two years later. Upon Peter II.'s early death,

brother of Peter the Great, was proclaimed empress. She was ruled by Münnich, Ostermann, and her favorite Biron (properly Bühren). The latter soon obtained complete control, and took unbridled vengeance on his enemies, particularly the Dolgoruky. In 1737 he was appointed duke of Curland, at the desire of the empress, by Augustus III., king of Poland (1733–1763). Russia's influence in Poland established by the war of the Polish succession (p. 398). In the war against the Turks, brilliantly conducted, in combination with Austria (p. 398), by the general Münnich (1736–1739), Azoff was the only acquisition. The empress Anna was succeeded by her grand-nephew, the minor

1740-1741. Ivan IV. (or VI.), whose mother, Anna of Brunswick, conducted the government for a short time after Münnich had accomplished the fall of Biron, who was sent to Siberia. A military revolution placed upon the throne

Great. Ivan was imprisoned, the leaders of the preceding government, including Münnich, were sent to Siberia, Biron returned. Capricious rule of women and favorites; Lestocq, a friend of Prussia, to whom the empress was chiefly indebted for her throne, was overthrown by Bestushef, friendly to Austria, and sent to Siberia. War with Sweden, see p. 410. Participation of Russia in the Seven Years' War, p. 404. According to Elizabeth's direction she was succeeded by the son of her sister, Peter, duke of Holstein-Gottorp.

1762—X. House of Holstein-Gottorp in Russia.

1762. Peter III., after a six months' reign, which he began with the imprudent introduction of reforms, was deposed (July 9) and imprisoned by his wife (princess of Anhalt-Zerbst), the energetic and immoral

1762-1796. Catharine II.

The two brothers Orloff caused the emperor to be strangled, whether with the knowledge of Catharine or not, cannot be stated. The fact that she overwhelmed the murderers with rewards tells against the empress.

Catharine asked and received from Augustus III., king of Poland, the restoration of Curland, for Biron, who administered the duchy under Russian influence, until 1772, and bequeathed it to his son.

After the death of Augustus III. (1763), Catharine, in alliance with Frederic II., procured the election of her protégé

At the request of Russia and Prussia the dissenters, adherents of the Greek church, and protestants received equal rights with catholics. In opposition to this change, formation of the Confederacy of Bar (1768), which made an unsuccessful attempt to abduct the king. In the civil war that followed the king was successfully supported by a Russian army against the confederacy. The Turks, allies of the confederacy, declared war upon Russia. Russia's success in this war aroused the envy of Prussia and Austria, which led to an attempt to secure an equal aggrandizement of the three powers by the

1772. First division of Poland.

1. Russia received the region between the Duna, Dnieper, and Drutsch, i. e. the eastern part of Lithuania. 2. Austria: East Gallicia and Lodomeria. 3. Prussia: Polish Prussia (West Prussia, with the exception of Danzig, Thorn, and Ermeland), which the Teutonic order had ceded to Poland in 1466 (p. 277), and the Netze district.

The assent of the Polish nation to this high-handed proceeding was extorted by force. Exertions of the powers who had shared in the

division to preserve the Polish constitution, which was another name for anarchy.

1768-1774. Catharine's first war against the Turks was successfully conducted. The Turkish fleet was defeated and burned by the Russians off the island of Chios (Tschesme, 1770). During the war revolt of the Cossack Pugacheff, who gave himself out as Peter III. The success of Romanzoff, who surrounded the Grand Vizier at Shumla, brought about the

1774. July 12. Peace of Kutschouc Kainardji.

1. Russia received Kinburn; Yenikale, and Kertch in the Crimea, and their districts; and obtained the right of free navigation in all Turkish waters for trading vessels. 2. The Tatars in the Crimea, and along the Kuban, became "independent." 3. Restoration of conquests in Moldavia and Wallachia to their princes, whose interests, as opposed to the Porte, were henceforward represented at Constantinople

by Russia.

["Permanently important provisions of the treaty of Kutschouc Kainardji: I. The Tatars were released from allegiance to Turkey and brought under Russian influence. II. Russia obtained a firm footing on the north coasts of the Black Sea; pushing back the Turkish frontier to the river Boug. III. The frontier line between the two powers in Asia was left much as it was before the war. IV. Russia stipulated for an embassy at Constantinople and for certain privileges for Christians in Turkey. V. Russia exacted promises for the better government of the principalities, reserving a right of remonstrance if these were not kept. VI. Russia obtained a declaration of her right of free commercial navigation in Turkish waters. All subsequent controversies between the Porte and Russia may be referred to one of these six heads."—T. E. Holland: Treaty relations of Russia and Turkey from 1774–1853.]

Prince Potemkin, Catharine's favorite, soon became all-powerful and conducted all state affairs according to his humor and his arbi-

trary will.

1780. Armed neutrality at sea,

at first introduced for the protection of commerce during the North American war (p. 428). The subject was broached by Russia, and the idea gradually found support from *Denmark*, *Sweden* (1780), *Prussia*, *Austria* (1782), *Portugal* (1783); *Spain*, and *France* recognized the principle. England prevented the addition of Holland

to the league by a declaration of war.

Demands of the Armed Neutrality. 1. Free passage of neutral ships from port to port and along the coasts of combatants. 2. Freedom of an enemy's goods in neutral ships (le pavillon couvre la marchandise), with the exception of such goods as were contraband of war. 3. Exact definition of a blockaded port; a merely nominal ("paper") blockade, that is, one not enforced by a sufficient number of ships of war in the vicinity of the specified harbor, was declared to be inadmissible.

Plan of Catharine and Potemkin to drive the Turks out of Europe,

and to restore the *Greek* empire, as a secondogeniture of the imperial house of Russia, under grand-duke *Constantine*. The 1787. Crimea (Tauria) incorporated with Russia. Catharine's journey through southern Russia to *Kherson*. Shameless representation of a flourishing condition of the country by *Potemkin the Taurian!* Meeting with *Joseph II*.

1787-1792. Catharine's second war with the Turks (Potemkin and Suvaroff),

in alliance with Austria (Laudon and the prince of Coburg). Potem-kin stormed Otchakoff (1788), victory, in union with the Austrians at Fokchany and on the Rimnik, Potemkin conquered Bender (1789), Suvaroff stormed Ismail (1790). Victory at Matchin. Peace between Austria and Turkey at Sistova (1791). Austria received Old-Orsova only. Potemkin died 1791. Between Russia and the Porte

1792. Jan. 9. Peace of Jassy.

Russia received Otchakoff and the land between the lower Dnieper, Bug, and Dniester, the latter river becoming the boundary.

1793. Second division of Poland.

The Poles had attempted to improve the war of Russia and Austria with the Turks, and the seemingly friendly aspect of Prussia, by putting an end to their dependence upon the neighboring states, and to the anarchical condition of affairs at home. Alliance with Prussia (1790), which promised to help the Poles if foreign nations should attempt to interfere in their internal affairs. The new constitution of 1791, drawn up by Ignaz Potocki and his friends, 1. converted the elective monarchy into an hereditary monarchy, appointing the elector of Saxony successor of the king Stanislaus Poniatowski and making the throne hereditary in the house of Saxony; 2. conferred the executive power upon the king and a council of state, the legislative power upon a diet of the kingdom in two houses, with abolition of the liberum veto, and 3. made some concessions to the middle classes and the peasants, permitting, for example, admission to the rank of the nobility, all of whose privileges, however, were confirmed.

In opposition to this constitution there was formed the Confederacy of Targowitz (Felix Potocki), under the protection of Russia, which had guaranteed the old constitution. A Russian army invaded Poland. Brave, but futile resistance under prince Poniastowski and Kosciuszko, who were defeated at Dubienka. The king joined the confederacy of Targowitz; the new constitution was repealed. Under pretense of suppressing Jacobinism, Prussian troops entered Poland. Annexation of Danzig (1793). Russia and Prussia issued a common proclamation which announced to the Poles that Russia and her former allies had already come to an understanding. At the diet of Grodno, the consent of the nation to the new cessions, was extorted.

Russia took the larger part of Lithuania, being all that remained, and Volhynia and Podolia; Prussia took Danzig and Thorn, and the whole of Great Poland (now called South Prussia). Besides all this,

Russia enforced a treaty of union, whereby she received: 1. free entrance for her troops into Poland; 2. the conduct of all future wars; 3. the right of confirming all treaties made by Poland with foreign powers.

1794. Revolution in Poland, under the lead of Kosciuszko. The Russians in Warsaw, under Igelström, were in part massacred, in part driven from the city. The Prussians entered Poland, defeated Kosciuszko at Szczekoziny (pr. Shtchekoziny), took Cracow, but besieged Warsaw in vain. The Russians were victorious at Brzesc and at Maciejowice (pr. Matchevitz). Kosciuszko captured. Storm of Prague by Suvaroff; massacre in the city.

1795. Third and last partition of Poland.

At this partition, the three powers took possession of the fol-

lowing parts of Poland:

Prussia: Masovia with Warsaw, the region between the Vistula, Bug, and Niemen (New East Prussia), part of Cracow (New Silesia); 2. Austria: West Gallicia as far as the Bug. 3. Russia: all that remained towards the east. The powers obtained, by the three partitions, about the following increase of territory:

Russia, 181,000 square miles, with 6,000,000 inhabitants.

Austria, 45,000 " " 3,700,000 "

Prussia, 57,000 " " 2,500,000 "

1795. The annihilation of the kingdom of Poland led to the incorporation of Curland with Russia. Curland, legally under the overlordship of Poland, had been practically under Russian supremacy since 1737, when the empress Anna (411) had obtained the duchy for Biron against the claims of the Marshal of Saxony.

§ 5. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

1701-1808 (1814-x). The House of Bourbon in Spain.

Philip V. (1701–1746). Bloody punishment of the adherents of the archduke Charles of Austria; particularly in Aragon and Catalonia. Suppression of all old constitutions and rights (Fueros) which remained. The quadruple alliance against Spain, see p. 397, the participation of Spain in the war of the Polish Succession and the establishment of a secundogeniture in Naples, see p. 398.

Under Philip and his successor Ferdinand VI., 1746-1759, participation in the war of the Austrian succession, see p. 401. Ferdi-

nand was succeeded by his half-brother

Charles III., 1759-1788, previously king of the two Sicilies, p. 417.

Participation of Spain in the Seven Years' War between England and France (Peace of Paris), see p. 441, and in the war of American Independence (Peace of Versailles), see p. 433. A popular revolt against Italian favorites of the king, was made the pretext

¹ Kosciuszko never made use of the well-known expression "Finis Polania," as he himself openly and with indignation declared.

for the banishment of the Jesuits from Spain (1767), which was executed by the minister Aranda.

Portugal.

Since 1640 Portugal was again independent of Spain, had again reached a certain degree of power under the first kings of the house of Braganza, but was then impoverished by a miserable administration, and brought into complete dependence upon England by a commercial treaty with that power. In the reign of Joseph I. Emmanuel (1750–1777), his minister Carvalho, marquis of Pombal, endeavored to introduce revolutionary reforms, in the spirit of the century, in the same direction as the later attempts of Joseph II. (p. 408). After the terrible

1755. Nov. 1. Earthquake of Lisbon,

in which 30,000 people lost their lives, Pombal caused the ruined portion of the capital to be splendidly rebuilt. An assuccessful attempt to assassinate the king (1758) formed a pretext for ban-ishing the Jesuits from Portugal (1759), and a welcome chance for the minister to rid himself of his enemies. The death of the king was followed by the fall of Pombal and the undoing of his reforms. The order of the Jesuits was dissolved in 1733, see p. 417. Pombal sentenced to death, but pardoned.

§ 6. ITALY.

Savoy.

The dukes of Savoy and Piedmont, kings since the peace of Utrecht, since 1718 kings of Sardinia (p. 397), understood how to increase their territory, in the eighteenth century as well as before, by skillful use of political relations. During the war of the Austrian succession they acquired a considerable extent of land from Milan (p. 400).

Genoa.

The republic of Genoa was constantly obliged to defend her freedom and independence against powerful neighbors, who coveted her territory (Savoy, France, Austria). In 1730 the inhabitants of the island of Corsica, which had been under the supremacy of Genoa, revolted. After a long and fluctuating contest, during which a German adventurer, Baron Neuhof of Westphalia, appeared for a time as King Theodore I. of Corsica (1736), the Genovese called in the assistance of the French, who after great exertions and bloody battles (particularly against Paoli), succeeded in subjugating the island, which the Genovese ceded to them in 1768.

Venice.

The republic of Venice, by consequence of its obstinate persistence in the old aristocratic forms, politically immired, sank into an irremediable decline. Its last laurels were gained in the seventeenth

century in the glorious wars against the Turks. The latter surprised Candia and conquered a part of the island (1645-1647). The Venetian fleet under Grimani and Riva repeatedly defeated the much stronger Turkish fleet. Brilliant victory of the admiral Mocenigo, 1651, and Morosini, 1655. Marcello annihilated the Turkish fleet by the Dardanelles (1656), Mocenigo defeated the Turks at Chios, but was himself defeated in a second combat. New naval victories over the Turks in 1661 and 1662. The Venetians received aid from Germany and France, but were obliged, after courageous fighting, to leave the island of Candia under Turkish supremacy. After an alliance between the republic of Venice, the emperor and John Sobieski of Poland (1684), renewal of the war against the Turks. The Venetians under Morosini, supported by German mercenaries, began the conquest of the Peloponnesus (Morea) in 1685. Count Königsmark landed at Patras (1687) and completed the subjugation of the peninsula. Morosini captured Athens; a Venetian bomb blew up the Parthenon on the Acropolis. Morosini, who had been elected doge, landed in Negroponte (Eubœa), but the plague in the army (Königsmark †) frustrated the expedition. In the peace of Carlowitz, 1699 (see p. 372), Morea was given to the Venetians, who repopulated the peninsula with Greek colonists, but soon earned the hatred of their new subjects by the rigor of their administration.

Tuscany.

Tuscany declined in power after the seventeenth century, as the influence of the clergy steadily increased. In 1737 the family of the Medici became extinct; the later members of this house, sunken in dissipation, were sadly unworthy of their great ancestors. After 1737, the rulers of Lorraine were dukes of Tuscany (see p. 398); Leopold II., upon his accession in Austria. (1740) gave Tuscany to his second son Ferdinand Joseph. Tuscany was an Austrian secundogeniture from 1765–1859.

Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were secundogenitures for the Spanish Bourbons from 1731-1735, and again 1748-1859.

Modena, since 1597, was ruled by an illegitimate branch of the house of Este.

Papal States.

In the Papal States, prosperity, industry, and intellectual life steadily declined. After the sixteenth century the papal chair was occupied by Italians only, who were for the most part members of the great families of the nobility. Among the Popes of the eighteenth century Clemens XIV. (Ganganelli) must be mentioned, who in 1773 yielded to the demands of the Catholic courts and dissolved the order of the Jesuits, whose general, Ricci, would not entertain the idea of reform (sint ut sunt, aut non sint), by the bull Dominus ac redemptor noster.

The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

After 1738 this kingdom was a secundogeniture of the Spanish Bourbons, and was given to Ferdinand, third son of Charles III., when the

latter ascended the Spanish throne in 1759. Naples and Sicily were governed by this branch of the Bourbon family solely in the interest of their house, and not in that of the people, for whose intellectual and material welfare little or nothing was done.

§ 7. AMERICA: BRITISH COLONIES.

- 1713. Treaty with the eastern Indians at Portsmouth. Rectification of the boundary between Massachusetts and Connecticut by the cession of over 100,000 acres of land by the former to the latter.
- 1715. An Indian war in Carolina undertaken by the Yamassees and allied tribes. The Indians were defeated and driven across the Spanish border by governor Craven.
- 1718. Captain Woods Rogers, appointed governor of New Providence, suppressed the buccaneers in the West Indies; extirpation of the pirates on the coast of Carolina by the governor of that colony.

1719-1729. Overthrow of proprietary government in Carolina.

In 1719 the people of Carolina, having for some time chafed under the arbitrary government of the proprietors, formed an association for the overthrow of the proprietary government. The assembly proving unruly was dissolved by governor Johnson, but refused to obey the proclamation; they elected a new governor and council, and opposed the armed demonstration of governor Johnson with an armed A threatened attack by the Spaniards only served to show more clearly the determined spirit of the colonists. (The Spanish expedition never reached Carolina, being repulsed from New Providence, and overwhelmed by a storm). The late events being reported by the agent for the colony in England, the royal council declared the charter of the proprietors forfeited, and forthwith established a provisional royal government; governor Nicholson (1721). In 1729 an agreement with the proprietors was reached and confirmed by act of parliament. Seven of the proprietors sold their titles and interest in the colony; the eighth retained his property but not his proprietary The crown assumed the right of nominating governors and The province was divided into North and South Carolina. councils.

- 1720. William Burnet, governor of New York. Prohibition of trade between the Indians and the French.
- 1722. In New York, governor Burnet continued his efforts to obstruct the French in their policy of hemming in the English sea-coast colonies on the west: Erection of a trading-house at Oswego; negotiations with the Six Nations at Albany. (The Tuscaroras had been admitted to the Iroquois confederacy as a sixth nation).
- 1724. Indian hostilities in New England. War with the Abinakis, who were incensed by the rapid extension of the English settlements, and further provoked by the advice of Rasles, a French Jesuit at Norridgewock. Futile attempt of the English to seize Rasles was answered by the destruction of Berwick, whereupon war was declared, Norridgewock burnt and Rasles killed.

- 1725. The Yamassees, though living under the protection of the Spaniards in Florida, continued their assaults on the English colony in Carolina. Expedition of Palmer to St. Augustine, upon which he chastised the Indians.
- 1726. The general court of Massachusetts having become involved in a controversy with governor Shute, the latter obtained from the crown an explanatory charter which gave him power to suppress debate, and limited the time for which the house of representatives might adjourn, to two days.

Treaty of peace between Massachusetts and the eastern In-

dians, which was long kept.

In New York, a treaty with the Senecas, Cayugas, and Onon-dagas added their lands to those of the Mohawks and Oneidas,

which were already under English protection.

1728. Burnet governor of Massachusetts. He was at once involved in a wrangle with the legislature over the question of a fixed salary for the governor, which the court refused to grant, "because it is the undoubted right of all Englishmen, by Magna Charter, to raise and dispose of money for the public service, of their own free accord, without compulsion."

The boundary between Virginia and North Carolina was sur-

veyed and settled, running through the Dismal Swamp.

1729. Division of Carolina into North and South Carolina (p. 417).

1731. Settlement of the disputed boundary between New York and Connecticut.

1733. Settlement of Georgia, the last of the old thirteen colonies (New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South

Carolina, Georgia).

It being thought desirable that the government should secure for England the western part of Carolina in order to prevent the French or the Spaniards from Louisiana or Florida from laying hold of it, a charter for the lands between the Savannah and Alatamaha rivers extending to the Pacific, under the name of Georgia, was granted to James Oglethorpe and associates, not as proprietors but as trustees (twenty-one in number), for twenty-one years for the crown, at the expiration of which time the colony was to revert to the crown, which should then determine on the manner of its future government. Liberty of conscience and freedom of worship were secured to all inhabitants of the colony except papists. James Oglethorpe, the moving spirit in this projected colony, desired to establish within its limits a chance for reformation for English prisoners, and a home for poor and oppressed Protestants of all nations. Oglethorpe brought the first colonists in 1733, and settled at Savannah; conciliation of the Indians by just purchase of lands and by kindness. Oglethorpe refused to allow the importation either of rum or of slaves into Georgia. Many Scotch Presbyterians as well as Moravians from Austria came to the new colony. One of the first enactments of the trustees dered that male issue only could inherit land in the colony.

- 1734. In New York arrest of Zenger, printer of the Weekly Journal, for libel on the governor (Cosby). Trial and acquittal 1735.
- 1738. Foundation of a college at Princeton, in New Jersey.

1739-1748. Great Britain at war with Spain.

1740. Unsuccessful expedition of Oglethorpe to Florida at the head of 1,200 men from Georgia, Carolina, and Virginia. Siege of St. Augustine.

Settlement of the boundary dispute between Massachusetts

and New Hampshire in favor of the latter colony.

Expedition of Vernon with 27,000 men against Carthagena, broken up by disease.

1741. The colonies participated in an attack on Cuba.

- 1742. Expedition of 3,000 Spaniards to Georgia repulsed by Oglethorpe by stratagem. In this year Oglethorpe went to England and never returned to America.
- 1744-1748. War between Great Britain and France, known in the American colonies as King George's War, in reality a part of the war of the Austrian Succession (p. 400).

The strongest French fortification in America outside of Quebec was Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, a part, as the English claimed, of Acadia; the French, however, had refused to surrender it with that province, asserting that only Nova Scotia was comprised under that name.

1745. Apr. 30-June 16. Siege and capture of Louisburg by 4,000 colonial troops under William Pepperell, aided by a few

English vessels.

1746. Projected conquest of Canada, by a united effort of all the colonies prevented by the arrival of a large French fleet at Nova Scotia under D'Anville, which spread consternation throughout the English colonies, but which, by the death of D'Anville, the suffering of the troops through pestilence and the loss of vessels by storm, was prevented from accomplishing anything.

1747, Nov. 17. An attempt of the English commander, Knowles, to press men for his vessels in Boston, caused an uprising of the people; the governor withdrew to Castle William, and the disturbance was only quieted by the release of most of the men

seized.

1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle between England, France, and Spain. In the reciprocal surrender of conquests, Cape Breton was restored to the French (p. 404).

Formation of the Ohio Company under a charter from the

English crown, which gave great offense to the French.

1750. In spite of the confirmation of the cession of Acadia to England by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, hostilities sprang up between the French and English there, owing to disputes over the boundaries.

1751. Governor Clinton, of New York, in association with South Carolina, Massachusetts and Connecticut, concluded a peace with the Six Nations.

1752. The trustees of Georgia finding that the colony did not flourish under their care, gave up their charter, and the crown assumed control, and placed Georgia on the same footing with other royal colonies.

The English parliament adopted the reformed or Gregorian

calendar for England and the colonies (p. 438).

The growth of the British colonies extending more and more westward caused the disputes between England and France to grow to a head. The French claimed the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, and all the region between from the Appalachians to the Spanish settlements in the west, and were intent on securing this region by a line of forts directly back of the English colonies. According to the English all French settlements within the territory of the colony of Plymouth (p. 293) were illegal; they also claimed the whole region occupied by the Iroquois. The settlement of Georgia and the foundation of the Ohio Company were attempts to counteract the progress of the French, and these moves in their turn were a cause of uneasiness to the French, who seized traders within the limits of the Ohio Company. As the lands of the company were within the territory of Virginia, Robert Dinwiddie, governor of that colony, dispatched George Washington to the forts on the Alleghany and the Ohio to remonstrate with the French (Oct. 31-Dec. 12). The commander of the Ohio forts promised to lay the remonstrance before the governor of Canada.

1754. Virginia immediately sent a force to the Ohio, two companies of which were under Washington. In the advance upon Fort Du Quesne, at the juncture of the Alleghany and Monongahela, he captured a small French party, but was besieged in Fort Necessity, which he had erected, and forced to capitulate under condition of free withdrawal (July 4).

June 14. Conference of colonial delegates at Albany with the Six Nations. By the advice of Benjamin Franklin the conference also drew up a plan of a union of all the colonies under a president appointed by the crown, with a grand council of delegates elected by the colonial assemblies, with a right of legislation subject to the veto of the president and the approval of the crown. Connecticut, objecting to the veto power, refused to sign the proposal, which was afterwards rejected both by the colonies and the crown.

- 1755-1763. War between England and France, called in the American colonies "The Old French and Indian War;" being a part of the Seven Years' War, in Europe, which was fought in Asia and Africa as well. War was not declared until the following year, but it is reckoned from 1755 (p. 404 and 438).
- 1755. While a conference of the colonial governors with general Braddock, who was sent from England to take chief command,

decided on three expeditions: 1. against Fort du Quesne; 2. against the fort at Niagara; 3. against the French fort at Crown Point in New York; a band of 3,000 Massachusetts troops under Winslow and Monckton captured forts Beausejour and Gaspereaux in the disputed district in Nova Scotia (June 16–17), and dispersed among the British colonies about 7,000 of the inhabitants who refused to take the oath of allegiance to England ("Evangeline").

Meantime general Braddock took the offensive at the head of the British regulars against Fort du Quesne, and fell into an ambuscade, in consequence of neglecting the advice of the provincial officers (Washington), and suffered a complete defeat and great loss in the 1755, July 9. Battle of Fort du Quesne or "Braddock's defeat."

Death of Braddock.

Attack on Crown Point: Construction of Fort Edward on the east of the Hudson (Aug.).

Sept. 8. Battle of Lake George; defeat of the French under Dieskau (†), by the provincial troops under Johnson. Construction of Fort William Henry at the south end of Lake George by the English. Fortification of Ticonderoga, between Lake George and Lake Champlain, by the French.

The expedition to Niagara was subjected to so many delays that

it was for the time abandoned.

1756. Great Britain declared war on France. Earl of Loudoun commander-in-chief of forces in America.

Aug. Forts Oswego and George captured by the marquis of Mont-calm, commander-in-chief of the French armies in Canada, and destroyed.

This disaster occasioned the abandonment of the projected enterprises against Niagara, Crown Point, Fort du Quesne and Eastern Canada. Fortifications of Georgia and Carolina (Fort Loudoun on the Tennessee river). The French constructed a system of forts in the region of the Illinois.

1757, August 9. Capture of Fort William Henry by Montcalm, massacre of the garrison, whose retreat to Fort Edward was guaranteed, by the Indians in Montcalm's army.

In Massachusetts, controversy between the governor, Lord Lou-

down and the general court over the quartering of troops.

In **Pennsylvania**, controversy between the governor and the assembly over a scheme of taxation; the governor refusing his assent to the bill, the assembly *demanded* the assent as their *right*.

1758, July 8. Repulse of Abercrombie before Ticonderoga.

Expedition against Louisburg (May 28-July 26). Capture of the fortress (July 26).

Aug. 27. Capture of Fort Frontenac by Bradstreet.

Nov. 25. Capture of Fort du Quesne by General Forbes. The fort was named Pittsburg.

1759, July 25. Capture of Fort Niagara by Sir William Johnston. July 26. Capture of Ticonderoga by Major-General Amherst.

Expedition of Major-General Wolfe from Louisburg against Quebec. Repulsed at the *Montmorency*; Wolfe conducted his force by

night to the elevated plateau behind Quebec called the *Plains of Abraham*, where in the

- 1759, Sept. 13. Battle of the Plains of Abraham the French under Montcalm were completely defeated. Death of Wolfe and Montcalm. Surrender of Quebec (Sept. 18).
- 1760, Sept. 8. Montreal and all Canada surrendered to the English.
- 1761. The writs of assistance in Massachusetts. The English government (Board of Trade reëstablished 1695) having for some time adhered to a course of commercial restrictions and duties upon the colonies (all molasses charged with duty except that imported from the British West Indies, 1733; erection of rolling mills prohibited, 1750; the slave trade favored in spite of the opposition of the colonial legislatures of Virginia and Carolina, etc.) had roused a spirit of resistance throughout the colonies based on the perception that such duties were a form of taxation without representation. Hence so much evasion was practised that finally the custom house officials in Boston applied to the superior court of judicature (Thomas Hutchinson, chief justice) for the issue of writs of assistance such as were granted by the exchequer in England. The case was argued for the colonists by Thacher, and especially by James Otis, (1725-1783), who urged the dangerous character of the writ as being servable by any officer against any person for any length of time, and accused the acts of trade as infringements of the charter. The court deferred its decision; it would seem that the writs were ultimately granted, but that the officers did not venture to use them.
- 1762. Expedition against Martinique, by the royal and provincial troops; surrender of this island, of Granada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and of all the other French West Indies.

War between England and Spain (p. 439).

July. Storm of Havana, which was surrendered to the English.

- 1763, Feb. 10. Peace of Paris, between Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal. (Preliminary articles 1762, Nov. 3, at Fontainebleau, p. 439).
- 1. France ceded to England, Nova Scotia, or Acadia, Canada, Cape Breton, and all other islands in the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, reserving the right to fish and dry fish on a part of Newfoundland, and of fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence three leagues from the shore, and at a distance of fifteen leagues from Cape Breton; also the river and harbor of Mobile and everything on the left of the middle of the Mississippi, the Iberville, and lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain, except New Orleans, the navigation of the Mississippi to be free for both England and France; also Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominique, Tobago. In all ceded districts certain civil and religious rights were secured to the French inhabitants. England ceded to France the islands of St. Peter and Miquelon in the Gulf of St. Lawrence for fishing stations, not to be fortified, and Guadaloupe, Marigalante, Desirade, Martinique, Belleisle, St. Lucia, in the West Indies.

- 2. Spain ceded to England Florida, and all other possessions east of the Mississippi; Spain also gave up her claims to the Newfoundland fisheries; England restored Havana to Spain and destroyed all English fortresses in Spanish America; right to cut and transport dye wood reserved.
- 3. France ceded to Spain the whole of Louisiana and New Orleans by a previous treaty of Nov. 3, 1762.

The English acquisitions were divided into the four governments

of Quebec, East Florida, West Florida and Grenada.

The number of inhabitants in the old thirteen colonies at this time was about two millions.

1763. The conspiracy of Pontiac.

Pontiac was the chief of the Ottawas, a firm friend of the French; relying on the vain hope of assistance from whom, he resolved to wrest from the English the border fortresses. To this end he formed an alliance of almost all the tribes of the Algonquin race, with the Wyandots and Senecas. The other nations of the Iroquois were with great difficulty kept quiet by the influence of Sir William Pontiac had planned to open the attack by the treacherous seizure of the fort at Detroit on May 7. Foiled in this by the coolness of Gladwyn, the English commander, who had been previously informed of the plot, the enraged chief opened the siege of the fort (May 9) and war broke out along the whole line from the Mississippi to Canada. In a short time Fort Pitt, Niagara, and Detroit, of all the border fortresses, alone remained in the hands of the English. In July Boquet forced his way, under severe fighting, to Fort Pitt, which he relieved. Pontiac maintained before Detroit the longest siege which the Indians ever executed, but on September 3, the garrison was relieved by a schooner from Niagara, and with the approach of winter the Indians withdrew. The western tribes were not subdued before 1765, but the danger was over. Pontiac did not long outlive his failure.

1763. Paxton boys in Pennsylvania; massacre of converted Indians. The peace gave to Great Britain time to enforce more vigorously that system of repression and taxation which the ministers thought the fitting method of dealing with the too independent colonists, while it gave the colonists time to reflect upon and to resent such a procedure.

1763-1765. George Grenville, prime minister.

1764, March. Parliament voted that they had a right to tax the American colonies, though the colonies were not represented. Passage of the sugar act ("it is just and necessary that a revenue be raised in America") and of an act for increasing the efficiency of the revenue service.

Publication at Boston of "The Rights of the British Colonies asserted and proved," by *James Otis*. Adoption of a resolution

not to use British manufactures.

1765, March. Passage of the Stamp Act; prescribing the use of stamped paper for legal documents, pamphlets, and newspapers throughout the colonies. (Speech of Colonel Barré.)

The news was received in America with the greatest indignation. Resolutions of the house of burgesses in Virginia de-1765, May 30. nying the right of taxation, introduced by Patrick

Henry (1736–1797).

Oct. 7. Meeting of a congress of twenty eight delegates from Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, South Carolina (Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia were not represented, but were in sympathy with the colonies) at New York in accordance with the proposition of Massachusetts. The assembly drew up petitions and memorials to the king and parliament, and adopted a "Declaration of rights and liberties" (Oct. 19).

The arrival of stamp officers led to riots in various cities, as in Boston, where the officer (Andrew Oliver) was burnt in effigy, his house and that of lieutenant-governor Hutchinson sacked, in New York,

etc. Non-importation and non-consumption agreements.

1765-1766. Rockingham prime minister.

1766, March. Repeal of the Stamp Act, which had brought in no revenue (Pitt, Burke); examination of Benjamin Franklin (b. Jan. 17, 1706; d. Apr. 17, 1790); agent of Pennsylvania, before the commons. The repeal was accompanied by a declaratory act, asserting that "parliament has power to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever" (March, 1766).

1766-1770. Duke of Grafton prime minister (Earl of Chatham

privy seal).

1767. Duty imposed on glass, paper, painters' colors, and tea introduced into the colonies (this measure followed the defeat of the ministry on the land tax in England, which cost the revenue a large sum). Out of the revenue thus collected fixed salaries were to be paid royal officials.

New York having refused to make provision for troops quartered upon the colony, the legislative power of the assembly

was suspended by parliament until compliance.

Creation of a custom house and board of commissioners for America.

1768. Petition of Massachusetts to the king; circular letter to the other colonies. The British ministry demanded that the court rescind the circular letter; the court refused to do so (92 to 17), whereupon governor Bernard dissolved the assembly. Similar proceedings occurred in other colonies.

June. The seizure of John Hancock's sloop Liberty, for a false entry by the custom house officials in Boston, caused a riot, and

the officials fled to Castle William.

Oct. Arrival of British troops at Boston. The selectmen refused to provide quarters for the men.

First settlement made in Tennessee.

1769. Parliament adopted a resolution looking to the trial of acts of treason committed in the colonies in England. Resolutions of the house of burgesses in Virginia denouncing this position. The governor dissolved the assembly. Similar resolutions were adopted in other colonies.

The general court of Massachusetts, refusing to do business while a guard was stationed at the state-house, was adjourned to Cambridge. Refusal to provide for the troops. Submission of the assembly in New York.

1770-1782. Lord North prime minister.

1770. The Boston massacre. In a broil between the populace March 5. and the British soldiers in King (State) street, three men were killed and eight wounded. The officer in command (Preston) was brought to trial, but acquitted (defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy).

March. Act repealing the duty on paper, glass, and painters' colors,

but retaining that on tea.

1771. Insurrection of the "regulators" in North Carolina suppressed by governor Tryon.

Thomas Hutchinson (formerly lieutenant-governor) governor

of Massachusetts (went to England, 1774).

1772. Destruction of the British revenue schooner Gaspe, which June 10. had made itself very obnoxious to the people of Rhode Island, and now ran aground in pursuit of a packet. In spite of a large reward offered, no information concerning the offenders was ever given.

Settlement of the boundary between North and South Caro-

lina.

1773. The Virginia assembly appointed a committee of correspondence for intercourse with the other colonies.

The resolution of the colonies having caused a diminution both in the revenue and in the sale of tea, the British government agreed to relieve the East India Company of exportation duty if the company would transport its teas to the American colonies. Cargoes were therefore sent to New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, Boston. New York and Philadelphia sent back the ships; at Charleston the tea was stored in damp cellars, where, as there was no demand for it, it soon spoiled. At Boston, as the return of the ships could not be obtained,

1773, Dec. 16. They were boarded by citizens disguised as Indians, and 342 chests of tea were emptied in the water (Boston Tea

Party).

Daniel Boon settled in Kentucky. English settlement at Natchez. 1774, Mar. Passage of the Boston Port Bill, closing Boston to the importation and exportation of all goods except food or fuel; and of "an act for the better regulating the government of Massachusetts," which was a virtual revocation of the charter, giving the governor great increase of power. Another act decreed that persons accused of murder or any capital crime in aiding government should be tried in England, or in some other colony than that wherein the crime was committed. General Gage, commander-in-chief of the royal forces in North America, was appointed governor of Massachusetts.

June 1. The port act went into operation in Boston.

County conventions throughout Massachusetts protested against the acts (Aug.-Sept.).

Sept. The Suffolk convention resolved: "That no obedience is due from the province to either or any part of the said acts, but that they should be rejected as the attempts of a wicked administration to enslave America."

The project of a congress of the colonies, moved in 1773 by Franklin, was taken up by Rhode Island, Virginia, Mas-

sachusetts, and the other colonies (except Georgia).

1774, Sept. 5. Continental Congress

at Philadelphia. Peyton Randolph, president. Among the members were: Samuel and John Adams (Massachusetts), John Jay (New York), George Washington, Patrick Henry (Virginia). An address was prepared to the king, memorials to the people of British America, and to the people of Great Britain, to Canada, Florida, Georgia, etc. A declaration of rights was drawn up. The congress also concluded

Oct. 20. The American Association; an agreement to prevent all importation and exportation from and to Great Britain until the acts were repealed. On Oct. 26, the congress separated with a resolve to meet the next year if justice had not by that time been

In the meantime more British troops had been concentrated at Boston, and the town had been fortified. The town was the recipient of much sympathy and many generous gifts from the other colonies. The house of representatives in Massachusetts having been

dissolved by the governor Sept. 28, met, and voting themselves a provincial congress, proceeded to organize the

militia (minute-men) and collect stores and ammunition.

Fruitless attempt of the opposition in parliament under lord Chatham to procure the repeal of harsh measures toward the

· Acts for restraining the trade of New England and the southern colonies. A "conciliatory" measure introduced by lord North exempting from taxation any colony which would undertake to raise the quota assessed upon it. The act met with no response.

Feb. 26. A British expedition to Salem, to seize some cannon stored there, was opposed by a few militia under colonel Pickering,

but finally withdrew without bloodshed.

1775-1783. War of Independence.

April 19. Battles of Lexington and Concord.

A body of 800 British soldiers, detailed to destroy stores at Concord, fired upon a number of provincials assembled on the green at Lexington, killing eight men; an ineffectual fire was returned. Proceeding to Concord, the British destroyed the stores, but were obliged to retreat (fight at the bridge); the retreat became a rout before they reached Lexington, where lord Percy with fresh troops The further retreat to Boston was much embarrassed by the constantly increasing number of provincials. The British lost 273 men; the Americans 103.

In Massachusetts a large army was raised and encamped near Boston.

May 10. Capture of *Ticonderoga* by the provincials under *Ethan* Allen.

May 12. Capture of Crown Point by Seth Warner.

May 10. Meeting of the Continental Congress at Philadelphia.

May 31. The county convention of *Mecklenburg Co.*, North Carolina, declared the colonial charter suspended, and the government vested in the provincial and continental congresses.

The troops before Boston were adopted as the American continental army; and George Washington (born Feb. 22, 1732; died Dec. 14, 1799) was appointed commander-in-chief of the provincial forces

(June 15).

June 17. Battle of Bunker's (more properly Breed's) Hill, opposite Boston, where the Americans had thrown up intrenchments. The provincials were finally driven from their intrenchment, after their ammunition gave out, but not before they had inflicted a loss of 1054 men on the British, themselves losing about 450 men (Warren †).

July 3. Washington took command of the American army at Cam-

bridge.

1775, July-March 17, 1776. Siege of Boston.

1775, Aug. Georgia joined the other colonies. An expedition against Canada being resolved upon, general Montgomery took Montreal (Nov. 12), but was defeated and killed before Quebec (Dec. 31), where Benedict Arnold had joined him after an arduous march. Fruitless siege of Quebec by Arnold.

1776, March 4. Occupation of Dorchester Heights by Washington.

March 17. Surrender of Boston.

1776, April 23. North Carolina authorized its delegates to join

in a declaration of independence.

May 15. Congress voted "that the exercise of every kind of authority under the crown should be totally suppressed," and extended to all the colonies its advice that they should set up governments for themselves.

Virginia directed its delegates to introduce a resolution an-

nouncing the independence of the colonies.

June 7. In congress it was moved by Richard Henry Lee of Virginia, and seconded by John Adams of Massachusetts, "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." The resolution was referred and a committee appointed to draft a declaration, which accepted one prepared by Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia. Reported June 28. Debate July 1. The resolution was adopted by all the colonies except New York, whose delegates were not instructed on so grave a matter, July 2.

June 18. Evacuation of Canada by the Americans.

June 28. Repulse of the British before fort Sullivan (Moultrie) off Charleston, S. C.

1776, July 4. Adoption of the Declaration of Independence.

To have taken up a position of independence was a moral gain for the colonies, but the act was followed by a period of

military disaster.

After the surrender of Boston, Washington went to New York, which was soon attacked by the two Howes with some 30,000 men. The British commanders brought offers of peace, but they were not acceptable.

Aug. 27. Battle of Long Island; defeat of general Putnam. Re-

treat of the Americans to New York.

Sept. 15. Occupation of New York by the British. Washington

retreated to the Harlem heights.

Sept. 22. Captain Nathan Hale, sent to reconnoitre the British force on Long Island, was captured and immediately executed by order of Sir William Howe; the attendance of a clergy-man was denied him, and his last letters to his mother and friends were destroyed.

Disaster also overtook the colonists in the North.

Oct. 11-13. Defeat of Arnold in two naval engagements on Lake Champlain. Occupation of Crown Point by the British.

Oct. 28. Battle of White Plains, near New York. Defeat of

Washington.

Nov. 16. Capture of Fort Washington by the British.

Nov. 20. Evacuation of Fort Lee by the Americans.

Nov. 28. Washington retired to New Jersey, and soon afterwards to Pennsylvania.

Dec. 26. Battle of Trenton; Washington having crossed the Delaware by night, surprised and captured about 1,000 Hessians at Trenton; two days afterward he occupied the town in force, and defeated the British in

1777, Jan. 3. The Battle of Princeton. The Americans overran New Jersey, and several skirmishes occurred with the enemy during the spring. The army was in a very bad condition, owing largely to lack of money, which congress could supply only by the issue of paper money which soon depreciated largely. Even the arrival of the marquis of Lafayette, who was appointed major-general (July 31, 1777) brought only temporary encouragement.

Burgoyne's and St. Leger's campaign from Canada.

The summer of 1777 saw a change of fortune. The British had planned to cut the colonies in two by an expedition under general Burgoyne from Canada, which should be met by a northward movement of the army in New York. (Capture of forts Clinton and Montgomery, Oct. 6.) Burgoyne took Ticonderoga July 6, and defeated the Americans at Hubbardton July 7.

As Burgoyne reached Fort Edward, Schuyler, who had but half his force, retired to Saratoga. Meantime St. Leger, who was to cooperate with Burgoyne from Lake Ontario, besieged Fort Schuyler and defeated Herkimer (Aug. 6), but returned to Montreal on the approach

of Arnold with reinforcements.

Hearing of provisions and stores at Bennington in Vermont (then called New Hampshire Grants) Burgoyne sent colonel Baum to seize them, who was defeated by general Stark in the

1776, Aug. 16. Battle of Bennington.

Schuyler succeeded by Gates.

Sept. 19. Burgoyne fought the battle of Stillwater (first battle of Bemis's Heights, or battle of Freeman's Farm), retaining the field, although he suffered a heavier loss than the Americans. On Oct. 7, a second battle was fought at Stillwater (second battle of Bemis's Heights or Saratoga), in which the British were defeated. Being now surrounded and finding retreat impracticable,

1777, Oct. 17. Burgoyne surrendered his entire force (about 6,000

men) to Gates.

Howe's Campaign.

In the south events were less fortunate. On Aug. 25 general Howe disclosed his purpose of attacking Philadelphia. Washington immediately offered battle, but in the

Sept. 11. Battle of the Brandywine

the Americans were defeated, although they retired in good order (general Greene).

Sept. 27. Howe occupied Philadelphia.

Washington attempted to surprise the camp at Germantown, but was defeated in the

Oct. 4. Battle of Germantown.

Capture of Fort Mifflin (Nov. 16); evacuation of Fort Mercer (Nov. 20); loss of the Delaware.

Winter. Washington at Valley Forge. Sufferings of the army.

Nov. 15. Articles of confederation and perpetual union agreed upon in congress between the State of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia. The confederacy was to be called "The United States of America." These articles were laid before the legislature of the separate states for ratification. This process proved a long one.

June 14. Congress voted "that the flag of the thirteen United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field, representing a

new constellation.

The people of New Hampshire Grants declared themselves an independent state under the name of Vermont (Jan.)

1778. Treaties with France; recognition of the independence of Jan. 30-Feb. 6. the United States. These treaties were negotiated by John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and Arthur Lee.

Feb. Parliament renounced the right of taxing the colonies except for the regulation of trade, and appointed a commission to negotiate for the submission of the colonies. The proposals of the commissioners were rejected by congress (June 17) and by the separate states.

June 18. Evacuation of Philadelphia by Sir Henry Clinton. Washington intercepted Clinton's march, and in the

1778, June 28. Battle of Monmouth turned a retreat begun by general (Charles) Lee into a victory. The British decamped

by night.

Arrival of Count d'Estaing with eighteen vessels and 4,000 troops off Virginia. An attack on Newport having been resolved on, the French fleet sailed to that port. Instead of cooperating in the attack D'Estaing sailed to Boston Aug. 22, to refit (in accordance with his strict orders), and in spite of a victory at Quaker Hill on Rhode Island (Aug. 29) the Americans under Sullivan were obliged to give up the siege and retire from the island before Sir Henry Clinton who brought reinforcements.

July 4. Massacre at Wyoming in Pennsylvania by colonel Butler,

a Tory, and Brandt.

Sept. 14. Benjamin Franklin minister plenipotentiary to France.

Nov. 11. Massacre of Cherry Valley.

Dec. 29. Savannah captured by the British under colonel Campbell.

1779, March 3. Defeat of general Ashe at Briar Creek by the British. Loss of Georgia, where the provincial government was restored.

General Lincoln, being placed in command of the southern army, marched upon Augusta, while the British leader, Provost, threatened Charleston but retired before determined resistance. D'Estaing reaching Savannah with the French fleet, an assault was made on the town (Oct. 9), but repulsed; after which D'Estaing left the dangerous coast (death of Pulaski).

May. Coasts of Virginia plundered by an expedition from New York. July 5. Plunder of New Haven in Connecticut by Tryon; followed

by the sack of other towns.

July 16. Storm of Stony Point on the Hudson by the Americans under Anthony Wayne; destruction of the fortifications.

July 19. The Americans fortified West Point.

John Paul Jones, who had in 1778 surprised White Haven, sailed this year from a French port, and after a successful cruise in the English seas, fought a most desperate

Sept. 23. Naval battle with the Serapis and the Countess of Scarborough (Bonhomme Richard, Jones's vessel), in which

he was victorious.

1780, May 12. Capture of Charleston by Sir Henry Clinton. Subjugation of South Carolina by Clinton and lord Cornwallis. The brave resistance of Thomas Sumter and Francis Marion was seconded by the approach of the American army under De Kalb and Gates. But in the

Aug. 16. Battle of Camden,

Gates, though superior in numbers, was totally defeated by Cornwallis (DeKalb †).

Aug. 18. Sumter's force dispersed by colonel Tarleton. Marion retreated to North Carolina.

July. Arrival of Rochambeau at Newport with 6,000 men.

Benedict Arnold having been placed in command of West Point, negotiated with Sir Henry Clinton for its surrender; his treachery

was exposed by the capture (Sept. 23) of the agent, major André, by three privates of the New York militia, John Paulding, David Williams, Isaac Wirt, who, refusing his bribes, detained him and seized his papers. Arnold escaped to the British lines. André was condemned on his confession by a board of fourteen officers, and by order of Washington

1780, Oct. 2. André was hung as a spy.

Oct. 7. Battle of King's Mountain in North Carolina. Defeat of the British under major Fergusson.

General Greene appointed commander of the southern army. Adoption of a constitution by Massachusetts, with a bill of rights, which was held by the supreme court to have abolished slavery.

Abolition of slavery in Pennsylvania.

1781, Jan. 17. Battle of the Cowpens; defeat of the British cavalry under Tarleton by Morgan.

Cornwallis in pursuit of Greene, was twice prevented from over-taking him by the unexpected rising of the rivers (Catawba, Yadkin).

March 15. Battle of Guilford; doubtful victory of the British.

April 25. Battle of Hobkirk's Hill near Camden; Greene defeated by lord Rawdon.

June 5. Capture of Augusta by the Americans.

June 19. Greene forced to raise the siege of fort Ninety-six in North Carolina.

Sept. 8. Battle of Eutaw; defeat of Greene followed by the retreat of the British to Charleston.

Meantime British forces under Arnold, Philips, and Cornwallis, were concentrated in Virginia, where they fortified themselves at Yorktown and Gloucester (Aug.). In Sept. Lafayette, Washington, and Rochambeau met at Williamsburg, while a French fleet under count de Grasse entered the Chesapeake.

Sept. 30-Oct. 19. Siege of Yorktown.

Expedition of Arnold against Connecticut; burning of New London.

Oct. 19. Surrender of lord Cornwallis with 7,000 men at Yorktown in Virginia.

1782, Feb. 27. The commons resolved, on motion of general Conway, that "the house would consider as enemies to his majesty and the country all those who should advise or attempt the further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America."

1782, March 20. Resignation of lord North. (Ministry of the marquis of Rockingham followed by that of lord Shelburne (1782–1783).

July 11. Evacuation of Savannah.

Nov. 30. Preliminary articles signed at Paris between Great Britain and the United States.

Dec. 14. Evacuation of Charleston.

1783, Jan. 20. Cessation of hostilities between Great Britain and

the United States. Signature of preliminaries of peace between *Great Britain*, the *United States*, *France*, and *Spain* at Versailles.

April 11. Cessation of arms proclaimed by congress. Independence of the United States recognized by Holland, April 19, 1782; Sweden, Feb. 5, 1783; Denmark, Feb. 25; Spain, March 24; Russia in July.

April 19. Peace proclaimed by the commander of the army.

- 1783, Sept. 3. Definitive Treaty of Peace between Great Britain, the United States, France, and Spain signed at *Paris* and *Versailles*. (p. 441.)
- I. 1. Recognition of the independence of the United States, and establishment of boundaries. (From the intersection of a line due N. from the head of the St. Croix river in Nova Scotia, with the highlands S. of the St. Lawrence; along the highlands to the head of the Connecticut; along that river to 45° N., thence W. to the river Iroquois, thence through lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, Long Lake, and Lake of the Woods; thence W. to the Mississippi and along that river to 31° N.; from this point E. to the Apalachicola or Catouche, along this river to the Flint; thence direct to the head of St. Mary's river, and so to the Atlantic: east, from the mouth of the St. Croix river to its source, and due north to the highlands, including all islands within twenty leagues of the coast, except such as belonged to Nova Scotia.)

2. Right of fishery secured to the United States on the Grand Bank and all other Newfoundland banks, and in the gulf of St. Lawrence, as well as on the coast of Newfoundland; right to cure fish on all unsettled parts of Nova Scotia, Labrador, and Magdalen islands as

long as they should remain unsettled.

3. All good debts heretofore contracted should be considered binding.

4. Restitution of confiscated estates to be recommended by con-

gress to the states.

- 5. Navigation of the Mississippi to be open to both Great Britain and the United States.
 - II. Great Britain ceded *Tobago* to France. III. Great Britain ceded Florida to Spain.

Establishment of the Society of the Cincinnati by officers of the army.

Nov. 2. Washington's farewell address to the army.

Nov. 25. Evacuation of New York.

Dec. 23. Washington resigned his commission.

1784. Partial abolition of slavery in Connecticut. Erection of a temporary government for the western territory (April). Organization of the state of Franklin or Frankland by the western counties of North Carolina (Dec.); it was given up in 1788.

1786. Insurrection in Massachusetts and in New Hampshire, springing from the financial complications of the states.

1787, Jan.-Feb. The insurgents in Massachusetts, numbering

about 1,100, under Daniel Shays, met the troops of the state under general Shepherd, but were dispersed by the mere sight

of artillery. Three men were killed (Shays' Rebellion).

The restricted powers of the congress approving themselves totally insufficient for the proper government of the country (failure to establish a revenue by an impost tax; infraction of treaties by the states), Virginia proposed a convention for forming a better Constitution (1786). The recommendation meeting with favor, after much delay 1787, May 25. Delegates from seven states met in convention at Phil-

- 1787, May 25. Delegates from seven states met in convention at Philadelphia, and elected Washington president. Delegates from other states came in, until all were represented except Rhode Island. The debates were long and warm, and more than one compromise (tacit recognition of slavery; equal representation of all states in the senate; in the house representation according to population) was necessary before the delegates
- Sept. 17. Signed the Constitution of the United States, which was forthwith laid before the separate states.
- 1787. Ordinance for the government of the territory north-July 13. west of the Ohio, which was ceded, or to be ceded, to the United States by the states, and bought of the Indians. Slavery and involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime, were forbidden within this region.

1788, Sept. 13. All the states except Rhode Island and North Carolina having accepted the Constitution, congress appointed

days for elections under the same.

§ 8. GREAT BRITAIN.

1702-1714. Anne,

second daughter of James II., wife of Prince George of Denmark. Toward the close of her reign the queen was under the influence of the Whigs (John Churchill, duke of Marlborough and his wife).

1702, May 4. War declared upon France by the grand alliance, including England. For the war (of the Spanish Succession) see p. 390. Marlborough was captain-general of all the land forces; Godolphin, lord high treasurer; Nottingham, secretary of state. Halifax and Somers not in the privy council.

July 2. Sixth Parliament of William III. dissolved.

The campaign of this year resulted in the capture of Venloo and Liège and the loss of the lower Rhine to France. Sir George Rooke failed to take Cadiz, but seized a number of treasure ships at Vigo Bay (Oct.).

1702, Oct. 20-1705, March 14. First parliament of Anne. Harley speaker of the house of commons. Marlborough made

 \mathbf{a} duke.

Dec. Bill to prevent occasional conformity passed by the commons but rejected by the lords (*High church* and *Low church*).

1703. Severe laws in Ireland against Irish Catholics.

¹ The dates are those of the actual meeting and separation of the parliaments, not of the proclamations summoning and dissolving them.
28

1703. Methuen treaty between England and Portugal. England agreed to admit the heavy wines of Portugal at one third lower rate than the light French wines, while Portugal promised to import all her woolens from England.

Sept. Archduke Charles assumed the title of Charles III. of Spain.

Nov. Establishment of Queen Anne's Bounty; a grant of the first fruits and tithes which Henry VIII. had confiscated for the crown, in trust for increasing the income of small benefices. In this campaign (1703) Marlborough took Bonn and Huy, Limburg and Guelders.

1704, Mar. Case of Ashby and White (right of electors to vote).

July 24. Gibraltar taken by Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovel.

Aug. 13. Victory of Blenheim or Höchstadt (p. 392). Naval victory off Malaga over the French.

Attempt to pass the occasional conformity bill by tacking it to a money bill (tackers). The scheme was defeated in the commons.

1705, Oct. 4. Capture of Barcelona by Charles Mordaunt, lord Peterborough.

1705, Oct. 25-1708, Apr. 1. Second Parliament of Anne. Whigs in majority.

1706. May 23. Ramillies; conquest of Brabant (p. 392); Turin, Sept. 7; conquest of Italy (p. 392). The allies in Madrid.

1707, Apr. 25. Battle of Almanza; defeat of the allies by the duke of Berwick. Spain lost to the allies.

1707, May 1. Union of England and Scotland under the name of Great Britain went into effect.

This measure, which was made necessary by the omission of Scotland from the act of settlement, provided: 1. that Sophia; princess of Hanover and her Protestant heirs should succeed to the crown of the united kingdom. 2. There should be one parliament, to which Scotland should send sixteen elective peers and forty-five members of the commons. No more peers of Scotland to be created. Scotch law and legal administration to be unchanged; the Episcopal church in England and Presbyterian in Scotland to be unchanged. Adoption of the Union Jack (Crosses of St. George and St. Andrew) as the national flag of Great Britain.

of Marlborough and his wife had been gradually weakened by Harley and by the influence of the queen's new favorite, Abigail Hill, now Mrs. Masham. Marlborough, however, was still so strong that a hint at resignation secured the dismissal of Harley and St. John from the cabinet, and the substitution of Boyle and Robert Walpole (secretary-ab-war). Last Royal veto.

1 Not a new parliament, but the second parliament of Anne revived by proclamation. Henceforward parliaments are numbered without regard to reigns, but here the distinction is retained. The number as a parliament of Great

Britain is indicated by a Roman numeral in parenthesis.

1708, March. James Edward (Chevalier de St. George; the Old Pretender) landed in Scotland. A French fleet sent to assist him was repulsed by Admiral Byng, and the Pretender soon returned to France.

July 11. Battle of Oudenarde (p. 392).

- 1708, Nov. 16-1710, Apr. 5. Third Parliament of Anne (II.). Whig majority. Somers president of the council. Leaders of the whigs (Junto): Somers, Halifax, Wharton, Oxford, Sunderland.
- 1709, Sept. 11. Battle of Malplaquet (p. 393). Townshend's barrier treaty. Copyright act.
- 1710, Feb.-Mar. Trial of Dr. Sacheverell for preaching sermons of an ultra Tory cast. He was convicted and thereby secured great popularity in the kingdom.

Harley chancellor of exchequer. St. John, secretary of state.

Sept. Charles III. in Madrid driven out by Vendôme.

1710, Nov. 25-1713, July 16. Fourth Parliament of Anne (III.). Tory majority. Dismissal of Godolphin; resignation of all the Whig ministers.

South Sea Company established.

- Mrs. Masham superseded the duchess of Marlborough as keeper of the privy purse. The duke retained his office. Attempted assassination of Harley by the marquis of Guiscard. Harley created earl of Oxford and Mortimer and lord high treasurer.
- Marlborough captured the fortress of Bouchain. Oct. Charles III. left Spain; elected emperor Charles VI.

Philip VI. entered Madrid.

Passage of the occasional conformity bill.

Marlborough, who had returned to England, was accused of peculation (Nov.) and dismissed from all his offices. Ormond, commander-in-chief.

Dec. 30. Qualification act (repealed 1866).

1712. Creation of twelve Tory peers to secure a majority in the lords.

July. Henry St. John created viscount Bolingbroke.

1713. Apr. 11. Peace of Utrecht (p. 393).

Articles affecting Great Britain.

Great Britain and France: Renunciation of the Pretender; recognition of the Protestant succession in Great Britain; crowns of France and Spain not to be united under one head; fortifications of Dunkirk to be leveled and its harbor filled up; cession of Hudson's Bay and strait, Nova Scotia (Acadia), Newfoundland, St. Christopher to England; Great Britain and Spain, cession of Gibraltar and Minorca to England; grant of the Assiento (el pacto de el assiento de nigros), or contract for supplying slaves to Spanish America, to the subjects of Great Britian for thirty years (Royal African Company). 1714, Feb. 16-1714, Aug. 25. Fifth Parliament of Anne (IV.). 1714, May 28. Death of princess Sophia of Hanover. Schism act.

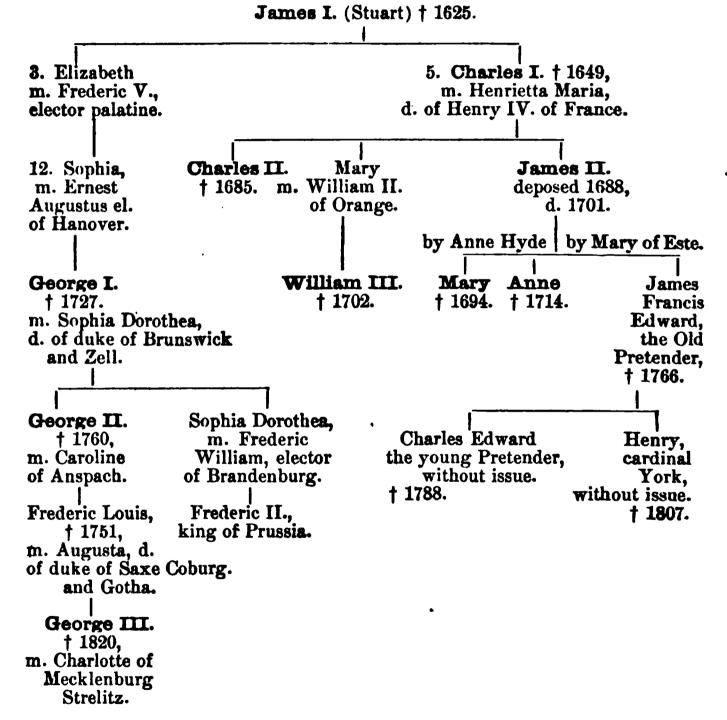
July 27. Duke of Oxford dismissed, and succeeded as lord high treasurer by the earl of Shrewsbury (Talbot).

Aug. 1. Death of Anne.

Alexander Pope, 1688–1744; Jonathan Swift, 1667–1745; Daniel Defoe, 1661?–1731; Joseph Addison, 1672–1719; Sir Richard Steele, 1671–1729. Periodical literature; Tatler, 1709, Apr. 12–1711, Jan. 2; Spectator, 1711, Mar. 1–1714, Dec. 20.

1714 - x. House of Hanover or Brunswick.

None of Anne's seventeen children having survived her, the crown, according to the act of succession, descended to the protestant house of Hanover, the catholic line of the Stuarts being excluded.



1714-1727. George I.

1714, Sept. 18. The king landed in England. George I. favored the Whigs in the formation of the first government; Lord Townshend sec. of state; Shrewsbury resigned, and Halifax was made first lord of the treasury (Shrewsbury was the last lord high treasurer); Sunderland lord lieutenant of Ireland; lord Comper chancellor; earl of Nottingham president of the council; Marlborough commander-in-chief.

- 1715, Mar. 17-1722, Mar. 7. First Parliament of George I. (V.). Impeachment of Bolingbroke, Ormond, Oxford. Flight of Bolingbroke and Ormond; Oxford committed to the Tower. Jacobite riots. Riot act.
- 1715-1716, Sept. Jacobite rising in Scotland under the earl of *Mar*. Battles of *Sheriffmuir* and *Preston*. Arrival of the Pretender in Scotland (Dec.) As his friends dispersed upon the approach of the duke of *Argyle*, the Pretender abandoned Scotland (Feb. 5, 1716) and returned to France.

Barrier treaty (in 1781 Joseph II. dismantled the fortresses).

Impeachment of the Jacobite leaders. Execution of Derivent-

water and Kenmure (Feb. 24).

Act creating septennial instead of triennial parliaments.

1717, Jan. 4. Triple alliance between England, France, and Holland in consequence of the intrigues of the Pretender, Charles XII. of Sweden, and Spain (Alberoni).

Feb. 20, 1722-Mar. 7. First Septennial Parliament.

Convocation ceased to meet for business (revived under the present reign).

1718, Aug. 2. Quadruple alliance between England, France, the

emperor, Holland (p. 397).

1718, Dec. 17-1720. War between England and Spain.

- 1718, Jan. Repeal of the occasional conformity act and the schism act.
- 1719. Abortive Spanish expedition to Scotland in favor of the Pretender.
- Nov. 20. Treaty of Stockholm; Sweden ceded Bremen and Verden (p. 397) to George I. for 1,000,000 rix dollars.
- 1720, Jan. Spain joined the quadruple alliance. Bursting of the south sea bubble, from a panic originating in the failure of Law's scheme in France.
- 1721-1742. Administration of Walpole (1726-1742, administration of Fleury in France).
- 1722, Oct. 9-1727, July 17. Second parliament of George I. (VI.).
- 1725, Sept. 3. Treaty of Hanover between England, France and Prussia (alliance of Herrenhausen).

1727, June 11. Death of George I.

1727-1760. George II.

Walpole continued in office. The king governed by his wife, Wilhelmina Charlotte Caroline, of Anspach.

1728, Jan. 23-1734, Apr. 16. First Parliament of George II. (VII.).

- 1729, Nov. 9. Treaty of Seville with Spain; restoration of conquest; confirmation of the assiento. Gibraltar ceded to England.
- 1731, Mar. 16. Treaty of Vienna: dissolution of the Ostend East India Co. which had been formed as a rival to the English East India Co. by the emperor.

1735, Jan. 14-1741, Apr. 25. Second Parliament of George II.

(VIII.).

1736. Porteous riots in Edinburgh.

1739-1748. War with Spain.

1739, Nov. 22. Capture of Porto Bello in Darien by admiral Vernon.

Futile attack upon Carthagena by Vernon and Wentworth. **1740.** Disease in the army.

1740, Sept.-1744, June. Voyage of commodore Anson to the coast

of Chili and Peru and around the world.

1741, Dec. 1-1747, June 17. Third Parliament of George II. (IX.). Fall of Walpole (succeeded by the earl of Wilmington, Feb. 1742).

1743-1754. Administration of Henry Pelham, who succeeded the earl of Wilmington (†), July 1743, as first lord of the treasury.

1740-1748. War of the Austrian Succession.

England took part with Austria (pragmatic army); for her share in the war see p. 400.

Ministry of Pelham, Pitt, 'Newcastle, Harrington (Stanhope), Bedford. ("Broad Bottom Ministry.")

1745, May 11. Battle of Fontenoy (p. 402); Saxe defeated Cumberland. Louisburg taken from the French (p. 421).

Second Jacobite rebellion.

The young Pretender, Charles Edward, landed in Scotland (July 25), and proclaimed his father († 1765) as James VIII. of Scotland and III. of England.

Sept. 11. The Pretender entered Edinburgh with some 2,000 men.

Sept. 21. Jacobite victory at Prestonpans.

Dec. 4. Pretender at Derby (about 6,000 men).

Dec. 18. Jacobite victory at Penrith.

1746, Jan. 17. Jacobite victory at Falkirk Moor, over general Hawley.

April 16. Battle of Culloden; victory of the duke of Cumberland over lord George Murray and the Pretender.

Execution of Jacobite lords. Escape of the Pretender to France (Sept. 20).

1747, Nov. 10-1754, Apr. 6. Fourth Parliament of George II. (X.).

Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (p. 403). **1748**, Oct.

1752. Adoption of the reformed (Gregorian) calendar in England and the colonies.

The year was to begin Jan. 1 instead of March 25; eleven days were omitted between Sept. 3 and 14.

The duke of Newcastle succeeded his brother, Mr. Pelham († March), as prime minister. Fox secretary of state.

1754, May 31-1761, Mar. 19. Fifth Parliament of George II. (XI.).

1755-1763. Land and naval war between England and France (Seven Years' War), originating in boundary disputes in North America, carried on by land in America (and Germany), by sea in all parts of the world. The English had the advantage of the French almost everywhere. (War in America, p. 420; in Europe, p. 403; in India, p. 443.)

- 1753. Foundation of the British Museum.
- 1756. Black Hole at Calcutta. (p. 443.)
- 1757-1761, Oct. 5. Coalition ministry of the duke of Newcastle, first lord of the treasury, and the elder Pitt (William Pitt, b. 1708; member of the commons 1735; vice-treasurer for Ireland 1746; privy councillor and paymaster-general, secretary of state 1756; retired 1761; in opposition 1761-1766; privy seal 1766-1768; earl of Chatham July 29, 1766; died May 11, 1778), secretary of state.

1759, Sept. 13. Battle of Quebec, death of Wolfe.

1759, Nov. 20. Naval battle of Quiberon Bay; defeat of the French by Sir Edward Hawke.

1760, Oct. 25. Death of George II.

1760-1820. George III., first part of his reign, to 1783.

1761, Aug. 15. Bourbon family compact,
between France and Spain with the assumption of the accession
of Naples and Parma, for reciprocal guarantee of all possessions and an offensive and defensive alliance. Pitt, insisting
that war ought to be declared upon Spain, resigned (Oct. 5).
Lord Bute, the true adviser of the king; "the king's friends;"
the "power behind the throne."

1761, Oct. 5-1762, May 29. Ministry of the duke of Newcastle. Egremont and Bute, secretaries of state; George Grenville

leader in the commons.

1761, Nov. 3-1768, Mar. 10. First Parliament of George III. (XII.).

1762, Jan. War declared against Spain.

1762, May 29-1763, Apr. 1. Ministry of lord Bute; Grenville, secretary of state.

1763, Feb. 10. Peace of Paris

between Great Britain, France, and Spain.

1. France ceded to England: in North America, Canada, and Cape Breton Island; the Mississippi was recognized as the boundary between Louisiana and the British colonies; in the West Indies Granada; in Africa the French possessions on the Senegal. England restored to France Goree in Africa, and all conquests in India. 2. Spain ceded to England Florida, as indemnification for which France had already ceded Louisiana to Spain; Spain received from England all conquests in Cuba including Havana.

In consequence of this peace and her acquisitions in India (p. 443) Great Britain reached the summit of her extent and power; the North American colonies had gradually developed into states under governors, with liberal constitutions, modeled after that of Great Britain.

1763, April 1-1765, July. Ministry of George Grenville; Halifax and Egremont, secretaries of states; Fox created lord Holland.

No. 45 of the North Briton, containing insulting remarks concerning the king by John Wilkes, general warrants for the apprehension of the authors, printers, and publishers, were issued. Wilkes was arrested and expelled from the commons. General warrants declared illegal by the chief justice. Wilkes outlawed.

1765, Feb. Stamp act (p. 425).

1765, July-1766, July. Ministry of the marquis of Rockingham; general Conway secretary of state and leader of the commons.

1766, March. Repeal of stamp act (p. 423).

1766, April 22. General warrants declared illegal by resolution of the commons (a declaratory bill to this effect was thrown out by the lords).

Aug. 1767, Dec. Ministry of Chatham; Grafton.

1767, Dec-1770, Jan. Ministry of the duke of Grafton; Townshend chancellor of the exchequer; general Conway, lord Shelburne, secretaries of state. Pitt (earl of Chatham) lord privy seal. Lord Hillsborough first colonial secretary.

1768, May 10-1774, June 22. Second Parliament of George

III. (XIII.). Wilkes member for Middlesex.

1769, Feb. Wilkes expelled the house for an alleged libel on lord Weymouth. He was thrice elected and thrice rejected; at the last election his opponent, colonel Luttrell, who received a

small minority, was declared elected.

1769-1772. Letters of Junius, containing bitter attacks upon the duke of *Grafton*, lord Mansfield (*Murray*), and other members of the government, appeared in the "Daily Advertiser." The author is still unknown, though the letters are attributed by many with great confidence to Sir Philip Francis.

1770, Jan.-1782, March 20. Ministry of lord North (first lord of

the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer).

1770, May. Remonstrance of the lord mayor and aldermen of

London with the king.

1771. Abortive attempt of the commons to prevent the publication of speeches. Complaint of colonel Onslow; arrest of the printers; commitment of Crosby, lord mayor, and Oliver, alderman of London, for granting bail.

1774. Boston Port Bill (p. 425).

1774, Nov. 29-1780, July 8. Third Parliament of George III. (XIV.).

Wilkes, lord mayor, and member for Middlesex; motion to expunge the resolution rejecting him. (On the sixth motion, May 3, 1782, he was successful, and the resolutions were expunged "as subversive of the rights of electors.")

1775-1783. War of independence of the British colonies in North America, see p. 426.

1778–1783. War between Great Britain and France.

1778. Repeal of penal laws against papists in England.

1779-1783. War between Great Britain and Spain.

1779-1782. Gibraltar besieged by the French and Spanish in vain; bravely defended by Elliott.

1780. No popery riots, caused by the intended relief of papists in Scotland. Protestant associations; lord George Gordon, president.

June 2. Presentation of a no popery petition; riot in London lasting five days. Executions.

The armed neutrality (p. 412) formed to resist England's assumption of the right of search.

1780, Oct. 31-1784, Mar. 24. Fourth Parliament of George III. (XV.).

1780, Dec. 30-1783. War between Great Britain and Holland. 1781, Oct. 19. Surrender of Cornwallis (p. 431). In this year the English lost Pensacola, Tobago, St. Eustachius, Demerara, Essequibo, St. Christopher, Nevis, Monserrat, Minorca (1782).

1782, Feb. Motion of general Conway "that the house will consider as enemies to the king and country all who shall advise, or by any means attempt, the further prosecution of offensive war, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force."

March 15. Motion of Sir J. Rous "that the house could no longer repose confidence in the present ministers," lost by nine votes. On a threat of renewal of the motion lord North resigned.

- 1782, March 20-July 1. Ministry of the marquis of Rockingham († July 1, 1782); lord Shelburne, and Charles James Fox (b. 1749, son of Henry Fox, lord Holland; entered the commons 1768; lord of the admiralty 1770, of the treasury 1773; 1774 in opposition; 1782 in the cabinet; 1784 in opposition to Pitt; died Sept. 13, 1806), secretaries of state; lord Thurlow, lord chancellor; Edmund Burke (b. 1729? in Dublin, entered parliament 1765, paymaster of the forces 1782, in opposition with Fox 1784, until the French revolution; died July 9, 1797), paymaster of the forces; Richard Brinsley Sheridan (b. 1751 at Dublin, entered parliament 1780, died July 7, 1816), under-secretary of state.
- April 12. Battle of Martinique, naval victory of Rodney and Hood over De Grasse.

Reduction of the pension list; establishment of the legislative independence of Ireland; exclusion of contractors and revenue officers from parliament.

- 1782, July 1-1783, Feb. 24. Ministry of lord Shelburne following the death of Rockingham. William Pitt (b. 1759, entered parliament 1781; chancellor of exchequer 1782; prime minister 1783; retired 1801: returned to office 1804; died Jan. 23, 1806), twenty-three years old, chancellor of the exchequer; Fox, Burke, Sheridan, resigned.
- Nov. 30. Secret treaty of Paris with America (p. 431).
- 1783, Jan. 20-Sept. 3. Peace of Versailles and Paris (p. 432).
- 1. Recognition of the independence of the thirteen United States (the Americans retained the Western territory; the navigation of the Mississippi was in common). 2. England surrendered to France in the West Indies Tobago; in Africa the region of Senegal. 3. Spain retained Minorca in Europe, and Florida in America.
- 1783, April 2-Dec. 13. Coalition ministry of the duke of Portland; Cavendish, chancellor of exchequer; lord North and Fox, secretaries of state; Burke, paymaster.

1757-1784. War of the English in India, see p. 443.

In the epoch of the Seven Years' War, the English East India Company (at once sovereigns and merchants) began the foundation of an extensive empire in place of the existing factories. The victories of lord Clive gave the English the upper hand of the French,

and secured for them Bengal.

War with the Mahrattás, who were allied with the sultan of Mysore, Hyder Ali († 1782, his son, Tippu Saib), with the Nizam of Golkonda and the French. From the war this company came out victorious and with greatly increased strength. Under the ministry of the younger Pitt (1783–1801) the company was subordinated by the East India Bill (1784) in political and military affairs to a royal commission (board of control).

1768-1779. Voyages of James Cook (b. 1728; under Wolfe at

Quebec, 1759; d. 1779).

1. Aug. 26, 1768, to June 11, 1771: discovery of Cook's strait and of the strait between Australia and New Guinea. 2. July 13, 1772, to July 30, 1775: touching at New Zealand, Cook discovered many islands in the Pacific, penetrated to 71° S. latitude and rounded Cape Horn. 3. July 12, 1776, investigation of Behring's strait; on the return Cook was killed by the natives on Hawaii, one of the Sandwich islands, Feb. 14, 1779.

§ 9. THE EAST.

India.

Decline of the Mughal empire of Delhi.

Bahadur Shah (1707-1712), Jahandar Shah (1712-1713), son and grandson of Aurangzeb, both under the control of the general Zul-fikar Khán. Successful revolt of Farrukhsiyyar (1713-1719); oppression, revolt, and punishment of the Sikhs in the Punjab.

1715. Rajputana practically independent of the empire.

The Sayyid chiefs, Husáin Alí and Abdullá, placed two boy emperors on the throne, who were followed, after four months, by

1719-1748. Muhammad Shah.

1720-1748. Independence of the Deccan established under the Nizam ul Mulk, or governor.

1732-1743. Practical independence of Oudh.

1739. Invasion of India by Nadir Shah, of Persia; sack of Delhi.

1748. Death of Muhammad Sháh; from this time the emperors were but puppets, with a shadow only of power.

1748-1754. Ahmad Shah.

1748-1761. Five invasions of India by Ahmad Shah Durani, Afghan ruler of Kandahar: 1748; 1751-1752; 1761 (sack of Delhi); 1759; 1761.

1754-1759. Alamgir II.; capture of Delhi by the Mahrattás (1759).

1759-1806. Shah Alam II.

1761. Battle of Panipat; defeat of the Mahrattás by the Afghans

under Ahmad Shah Durani. The Mahratta power was following fast in the footsteps of the Mughal emperors. Under Sahu, grandson of Sivaji (p. 389), the real power fell into the hands of his chief minister, a Brahman with the title of Peshwa; this man and his successors (Bálají, 1718–1720; Bájí Ráo, 1721–1740; Bálají Bájí Ráo, 1740–1761; Madhu Ráo, 1761–1772) built up a confederacy at Poona while the true sovereigns sank into the petty princes of Sátára and Kolhapur (the latter still exists). Under the first three Peshwás their armies prospered, they conquered the Deccan and extorted tribute from Bengal (1751). After the defeat of Panipat (1761), the power of the Peshwa of Poona rapidly declined, and the-confederacy split up into five divisions: the Peshwás (Poona), Bhonslás (Nágpur), Sindhia (Gwalior), Holkar (Indore), Gáekwárs (Baroda).

The British in India.

When the eighteenth century opened, the British were established at Bombay, Madras, and in Bengal (Calcutta). The French had a factory at Pondicherri, south of Madras. This eastern coast land, the Karnatic, was under the Nawáb (Nabob) of Arcot, a subordinate of the Nizam of Haidarábád (Deccan).

- 1744-1748. War between France and England in Europe; followed by war between these powers in India. Dupleix, governor of Pondicherri.
- 1746. Capture of *Madras* by the French; it was restored in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1751-1754. War between French and British in India. Defense of Arcot by Clive (Robert Clive, b. 1725, clerk in Madras 1743, ensign 1744, paymaster 1748; in England 1753-1755; governor of Bengal 1758; Irish peer, baron Clive of Plassey, 1760; governor of Bengal 1765-1767; committed suicide Nov. 22, 1774).
- 1756-1763. (Seven Years' War in Europe, p. 403) and America (p. 420). War between the British and French in India.
- 1756, June 29. "Black Hole of Calcutta." The young Nawáb (Nabob) of Bengal, Siráj-ud-Daulá (Surajah Dowlah), having quarreled with the English, seized Calcutta and imprisoned 146 persons in the military prison of Fort William, a room some eighteen feet square. In the morning but 23 of the 146 were alive. Clive recaptured Calcutta, took the French factory at Chandarnagar and defeated a much more numerous force under Surajah Dowlah in the

1757, June 23. Battle of Plassey.

Mír Jafar was placed on the (viceregal) throne of Bengal; Surajah Dowlah was soon put to death.

1758. Clive governor of Bengal; defeat of the Dutch (Nov. 1759). Establishment of British influence as superior to that of the French in the south.

1760, Jan. 22. Battle of Wandewash; defeat of the French under Lally by colonel (afterwards sir Eyre) Coote. Destruction of the French power in India.

The British having deposed Mir Jafar and set up Mir Kosim as Nawab in 1761 were soon involved in a war with the latter (massacre

of Patná, 1763). Sepoy mutiny, 1764.

1764. Battle of Baxar won by major Munro over Shah Alam, the

emperor. Conquest of Oudh.

1765. Settlement of Indian relations by Clive, again governor of Bengal (1765-1767). Oudh restored to the Nawáb; Allahábad and Kora given to the emperor, Sháh Alam, the British received the financial administration of Bengal, Behar, Orissa, and the sovereignty over the Northern Circars.

1771. Sháh Alam submitted to the Mahrattás.

Famine in Bengal; bad condition of the company's affairs; its servants grew rich on extortions and perquisites, but the company was near bankruptcy. Failure of Clive's system of man-

agement.

1772-1774. Warren Hastings, governor of Bengal (b. 1732; clerk in Bengal 1749; member of government 1761; in England; member of council in Madras 1765; governor of Bengal 1772, of India 1774; recalled 1785, impeached 1788, acquitted 1795,

privy counselor 1814, died 1818).

1774-1785. Warren Hastings, governor-general of India. Council of five instead of twelve, Hastings having the casting vote. Introduction of reforms in administration; acquirement by the British of complete control of the finances of the empire. Opposition of Philip Francis (Junius?).

Holding that the emperor had broken the agreement with Clive by joining the Mahrattás, Hastings sold Allahábád and Kora to the governor of Oudh. The resistance of Chait Sinh, the Rájá of Benares, to the demands of Hastings was fanned into a rebellion; Hastings charged the mother of the governor of Oudh (Begam of Oudh) with abetting the rebel, and extorted over £1,000,000 from her. For these acts Hastings was impeached in parliament on his return to England (1788–1795; speech of Burke), but acquitted.

War with the Mahrattás (1778-1781), and with Haidar Ali of

Mysore and his son Tipu (Tippu Saib).

China.

1721-1735. Yung-ching.

1735-1795. Kien-lung.

Annexation of *Ili*. Conquest of *East Turkestan*. Unsuccessful invasion of *Cochin China* and *Burmah*. Suppression of a Mohammedan revolt in Kan-sah. Severe persecution of the *Christians*. Literary labors of the emperor, who was himself a poet; foundation of four libraries.

1792. Conquest of the Gorkhas and the Nepaulese. Unsuccessful attempt to suppress a rebellion in Formosa.

1793. Embassy of earl Macartney.

1795. Abdication of the emperor, who died in 1798.

Japan.

From 1654 to 1853 the history of this country is marked by few events of interest. Under the Tokugawa Shoguns, many of whom were famous for their active interest in science and literature, the people progressed in civilization and the diffusion of education. Toward the close of the second century the country began to feel the evil effects of the long peace: wealth, luxury, enervation. Iyetsuna 1650–1681; construction of a cooperative history of Japan, the Dai Nihon Shi, under the care of the prince of Mito; department of astronomy; growth of Yedo. Tsunayoski, 1681–1708, the friend of learning. Kaempfer in Japan. Yoshimune, 1717–1744, one of the ablest of the Tokugawas; revision of the criminal code; introduction of sugar-cane; foundation of a free hospital at Yedo; hygienic information distributed throughout the country (population of Japan in 1744, 26,080,000). From 1763–1770 an empress sat on the Mikado's throne.

1780-1816. The Mikado Kokaku; the Shoguns; Iyeharu 1763-1786; Iyenori 1787-1837. Reformation of the administration. During this reign the influence of the Dutch increased rapidly, while several attempts of the Russians to open intercourse with Japan were brusquely repulsed.

§ 10. FRANCE.

1715-1774. Louis XV., five years old,

the great-grandson of Louis XIV., whose son (the dauphin Louis), and grandson (the duke of Burgundy) died before him.

of Louis XV. He set the country (and the king) an example of the most shameless debauchery. His favorite was cardinal Dubois († 1723), a man of low birth and character, but of considerable ability. Abandonment of the policy of Louis XIV.; alliance with England (1717, p. 349); religious tolerance. The quadruple alliance, p. 397. War with Spain; marshal Berwick in Spain; peace, Feb. 17, 1720 (treaty of London; the emperor received Sicily, Savoy obtained Sardinia).

1718–1720. Law's Mississippi scheme.

In his financial distress the regent grasped at the dazzling plans of the Scotchman, John Law. Royal bank; company of the west; grant of Louisiana. Popular infatuation. Enormous inflation of the currency; issue of notes to the amount of 3,000,000,000 francs, based on the land of the kingdom. Sudden collapse of the bank and the company, bringing widespread disaster (1720). See the South Sea Bubble (p. 437).

1723-1726. Administration of the duke of Bourbon. The young king married the daughter of the deposed king of Poland,

Stanislaus Lesczinski, having broken off the projected marriage with the Infanta of Spain and sent back the princess to the great indignation of Philip V. Louis was under the influence of his tutor, cardinal Fleury, who overthrew the duke of Bourbon and his favorite the marquise de Prie, and banished them from court.

1726-1743. Administration of Fleury.

Participation of France in the war of the Polish succession, p. 398; in the war of the Austrian succession, p. 400; in the Seven Years' War, p. 403; war with England and the peace of Paris, pp. 422, 441.

Persecution of the Jansenists. Miracles at the cemetery of St.

Medard. Convulsionnaires. Closure of the cemetery, 1732.

"De par le Roi, défense à Dieu, De faire miracles en ce lieu."

After the death of Fleury (1743), government of mistresses and of ministers whom they placed in office. Senseless expenditure and revolting arbitrary rule. *Marquise de Chateauroux*.

1745-1764. Marquise de Pompadour (Lenormant d'Etioles).

1745, May 5. Battle of Fontenoy; victory of Marshal Saxe over the allies (p. 402 and 438).

Struggle between the church, parliament, and crown. The duc de Choiseul, a friend of *Pompadour*, minister.

1756. Hostilities with England in North America led to war (p. 438).

1757, Jan. 5. Attempted assassination of Louis XV. by Damiens, who was barbarously tortured and torn by four horses.

1768. Death of the queen.1769. Annexation of Corsica.

The immorality and extravagance of the court reached its height when Louis XV., toward the close of his reign, came under the influence of the shameless prostitute Jeanne Vaubernier, by marriage with a superannuated courtier,

1769-1774. Countess DuBarry.

Contest with the parliament of Paris, which was abolished in 1771 by the chancellor, Maupeou, and superseded by a Conseil du Roi, without political privileges. The parliament was, however, restored under the next reign. Pacte de famine; a company in which the king was shareholder, which had a monopoly of the corn supply. 1774, May 10. Death of Louis XV. He was succeeded by his grandson,

1774-1792. Louis XVI.,

whose moral purity and sincere good-will, neutralized by a total lack of energy, were unable to quiet the approaching storm of the revolution by feeble attempts at reform. Restoration of the parliament. Louis, while dauphin (1770) had married Maria Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria. The queen, at first extremely popular, soon incurred the dislike of the people, and became an object of the grossest slanders, particularly in connection with the scandalous affair of the diamond necklace (1785; given to the

queen by cardinal Rohan; countess Lamott). Her influence was an evil one, being exerted for the maintenance of the system of favoritism, and for the resistance of reforms.

1774-1781. Maurepas, the king's favorite minister.

1774-1776, May. Turgot minister of marine and finance.

1777-1781. Neckar, minister of finance; abolition of six hundred superfluous offices.

1778. Alliance between France and the United States of America (p. 429).

For the participation of France in the war of American independ-

ence, see p. 429, etc.

- 1781. Publication of the compte rendu by Neckar. On the death of Maurepas the Comte de Vergennes succeeded to the favor of the king.
- 1783-1787. Colonne, a favorite of the queen, minister of finance. Great extravagance of the court; contraction of an enormous debt.
- 1787, Feb. 22. Assembly of notables summoned at Versailles. Fall of Colonne.

De Brienne, minister of finance. Dissolution of the assembly (May 25). Opposition of the parliament of Paris, which refused to register the reform.

Edicts, alleging that such changes needed the approval of the states-general. Banishment of the parliament to Troyes. An agreement was patched up, but on the recall of the parliament, a still more aggravated quarrel broke out concerning new loans.

1788, Jan. Presentation of grievances. Arrest of the leaders of the parliament. Abolition of that body, the place of which was to be taken by a cour plenière, nominated by the king. Revolts in the provinces.

Summons of a states-general for May 5, 1789.

1788, Aug. De Brienne resigned office. Neckar recalled.

THIRD PERIOD.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FIRST FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1789-1815).

The revolution ran through three stages to the extreme of a democratic republic, three other periods brought it gradually through a reaction back to absolute monarchy, after which came a time of constitutional monarchy, then a republic, then the second empire, then a republic again.

1. States General and Constituent Assembly (Constituente); from May 5 (June 17), 1789, to Sept. 30, 1791 (2½ years). A limited (constitutional) monarchy. Influence of the higher middle classes.

2. The Legislative Assembly (Législative); from Oct. 1. 1791, to Sept. 21, 1792 (almost a year). Monarchy still further limited, then suspended. Increase of the power of the lower classes.

3. The National Convention (Convention Nationale); from Sept. 21, 1792, to Oct. 25, 1795 (more than three years); called to frame a

new constitution, it first abolished the monarchy and condemned the king to death; it supported the Reign of Terror, and then overthrew it. It led the resistance to foreign foes.

N. B. The left of the constituent was the right of the legislative, and the left of the legislative was (at first) the right of the

convention.

4. The Directory (Directoire): from Oct. 26, 1795, to Nov. 9, 1799 (18 Brumaire, An. VIII.) more than four years. The middle classes recovered their influence. Party divisions. The army. General Bonaparte's coup d'état.

5. The Consulate (consulat), at first provisional then definitive,

from Dec. 25, 1799, to May 20, 1804 (41 years); civil and military rule, virtually of one man; progress of French arms.

6. The (first) Empire; from May 20, 1804 to (April, 1814) June 22, 1815 (about eleven years). Napoleon I. made France the controlling power on the continent, but was finally overthrown.1

General Causes of the Revolution.

1. The spirit of the eighteenth century—a spirit devoted to the destruction or reformation of all existing institutions. Attacks of French writers upon church and state. Montesquieu (1689–1755); Voltaire (1694–1778); Rousseau (1670–1741); the Encyclopedia (1751–1780), the work of the Encyclopedists: Holbach (1723– 1789); Helvetius (1715–1771); Diderot (1713–1784); D'Alembert (1717-1783); Condillac (1715-1789).

2. The unequal division and miserable cultivation of the land (nearly two thirds of which was in the hands of the clergy and the nobles), and the strict control exercised by the guilds, which checked the de-

velopment of trade and industry.

3. The arbitrary government, the abuses in the administration, the unequal apportionment of the burdens of taxation. Since 1614, the constitutional assembly of the kingdom, the états-généraux had not been summoned (p. 325). Control of the liberty of the subject by arbitrary warrants of imprisonment (lettres de cachet, Bastille) of their property

by arbitrary taxation.

In opposition to the right assumed by the parliament of Paris, to refuse the registration of edicts of taxation, the court had recourse to beds of justice (lits de justice, a despotic enforcement of registration), and the banishment of members of parliament. Commissions in the army, places in parliament, and most of the higher offices, were purchasable, but as a rule, only by the nobles. The privileged classes (nobility and clergy) were allowed many privileges in regard to the direct taxes, although by no means exempt by them.2 Continuation in the country of the oppressive feudal burdens (corvées, enforced labor on the estate of the lord and on public roads without pay), exactions of the feudal lords, who wasted their revenues in the capital and gave the peasants neither protection nor assistance in return. Taille, land and property tax; gabelle, tax on salt.

¹ Assmann.

² Von Sybel, Geschichte der Revolutionszeit.

Special Cause.

The immense public debt and the deficit. The yearly deficit owed its origin to the wars of Louis XIV., to his costly, often senseless buildings (Versailles with its basins and fountains lying in a district totally without water), and to his extravagant court; it grew under the profligate expenditure of Louis XV. and the cost of the North American war under Louis XVI. till it amounted to nearly half of the yearly income. As Turgot's (1774–1776) attempts at reforms (removal of internal duties on commerce; abolition of the corvée, abolition of many guilds), Necker's (1776–1781) economical administration, and the assembly of notables summoned upon the advice of Calonnes (1787), brought no relief, the king took the advice of Necker, who had reassumed office (1788), and resolved upon the

1789, May 5. Summons of the Etats-Généraux to Versailles, with a double representation of the middle classes, the third estate (tiers état), nobles 300, clergy 300, commons 600. Dispute about the manner of debating and of voting (whether votes should be cast by the orders as such, or by each member individually) which broke out during the verification of the powers of the members. The nobles and the clergy demanded a separate verification, the commons wished that it should take place in common. The true question was whether the legislative body should consist of a lower house of commons, and an upper house of nobles and clergy which would check the lower, or of one house in which the commons equaled in number the nobles and clergy together. Upon the motion of the abbé Sieyes (author of the remarkable pamphlet asking, What is the third estate?) the representatives of the third estate assumed the title of the

- 1789, June 17-1791. National Assembly (constituenet) and invited the other orders to join them.
- 1789. Suspension of the meetings for three days; the hall June 20. closed to the members, who at last resorted to a neighboring tennis court (jeu de paume) and took an oath not to separate until they had given the realm a constitution. President Bailly. Many of the clergy and some nobles joined the assembly.

June 23. Fruitless royal sitting; the king ordered the assembly to meet in three houses.

Principal orator of the assembly: Mirabeau (Riquette, count of Mirabeau, born 1749, of remarkable talent, but dissolute, in debt, at variance with his family, elected in Provence as representative of the third estate). The representatives of the clergy and the nobility join the third estate by request of the king. Concentration of troops near Paris.

Rumors of a purpose to dissolve the national assembly, and the dis-

missal of Necker (July 11) caused the

1789. Storm and destruction of the Bastille in Paris July 14. (murder of De Launay), Camille Desmoulins. Paris in the

hands of the mob scarcely controlled by the electors who had chosen the deputies from Paris for the assembly and now sat at the Hôtel de Ville as a provisional government. Necker recalled. Lafayette commander of the newly established National Guard. Bailly mayor of Paris. Adoption of the tricolor: blue, red (colors of Paris), white (color of France).

Beginning of the emigration of the nobles, headed by the count of

Artois, second brother of the king, prince Condé, Polignac.

Rising of the peasants against the feudal lords in Dauphiné, Provence, and Burgundy. Riots, provisional governments, guards in the

provincial cities.

Aug. 4. Voluntary surrender by the representatives of the nobles (vicomte de Noailles) of all feudal rights and privileges; abolition of the titles, prohibition of the sale of offices, dissolution of the guilds, etc.

Aug. 27. Declaration of the rights of man. Discussion of the veto

power.

Oct. 5, 6. Outbreak of the mob of Paris, caused by hunger, the bribes of the duke of Orléans, and rumors of an intended reaction. March of a band, consisting principally of women, to Versailles. The royal family, rescued by Lafayette, were obliged to go to Paris, whither the national convention followed them. 200 members resigned.

Democratic monarchical constitution: one chamber with legislative power and the sole right of initiation. The royal veto was suspensive only, delaying the adoption of a measure for two legislative terms. The king could not declare war and conclude peace without the consent of the chamber, ratification by which was necessary for

the validity of all foreign treaties.

In order to relieve the financial distress the ecclesiastical estates were declared public property. Assignats, notes of the government, having for security the public lands, the value of which was not to be exceeded by the issue of notes (a check which was inoperative). The state assumed the support of the clergy.

1790, July 14. National federation in Paris; the Constitution accepted by the king.

Abolition of the old provinces and governments; France divided into eighty-three departments, named after rivers and mountains; these departments being subdivided into 374 districts and cantons. The communes were left unchanged (44,000); tax qualification for the exercise of active suffrage in the primary assemblies, which chose electors (electeurs) who then elected the representatives (745) for a legislature with a term of two years. The administrative officers of the departments and districts were selected from the electors; the municipal officers and the judges were taken from the great body of voters, the active citizens. Each department and each district had a local assembly. Abolition of the parliaments and the old judicial constitution. Juries. Abolition of hereditary nobility, titles, and coats-of-arms. Dissolution of all ecclesiastical orders, excepting those having education and the care of the sick for their objects. Civil organization of

the clergy; the pastors to be chosen by the voters of the districts, the bishops by the voters of the departments. Only one third of the ecclesiastics submitted to the new constitution by taking the required oath, so that henceforward there was a distinction between priests who had taken the oath (prêtres assermentés) and priests who had not

(réfractaires).

Clubs had existed since 1789; the Jacobins, named after their place of assembly, which was formerly occupied by Dominican monks from the Rue St. Jacques (Robespierre), soon the greatest power in the state; the Cordeliers, who held their meetings in a monastery of Franciscans (Danton, Marat, Camille, Desmoulins, Hébert); the Feuillants, moderate monarchists who had separated from the Jacobins (Lafayette, Bailly). Reorganization of the municipality (commune) of Paris, in forty-eight sections; \$4,000 voters (pop. 800,000); general council, executive board (44). Each section had its primary assembly.

1790, Sept. Fall of Necker.

Alliance between the court and Mirabeau, who endeavored to stem the revolution and prevent the destruction of the throne.

1791, April 2. Death of Mirabeau.

June 20. Flight of the king. Stopped at Varennes, brought back to Paris (June 25). Unprovoked assault on a meeting in the Champs de Mars (July 17, "massacre of the Champs de Mars.") Suspended, reinstated by the moderate party (Sept.), Louis XVI. accepted the constitution as revised and completed. Dissolution of the assembly (Sept. 30) after it had voted that none of its members should be eligible for reëlection to the next legislature.

1791, Oct. 1-1792, Sept. Legislative Assembly.

745 representatives, mostly from the middle class. Parties: the right, composed of constitutionalists, royalists, Feuillants, became weaker with every day. The left side, comprising the majority, was divided into: 1. Moderate republicans (the plain, la plaine), containing the group of the Girondists (so called after its leading members from Bordeaux, the department of the Gironde), Guadet, Vergniaud, Brissot, etc., advocates of a federal republic. 2. The Mountain (la montagne, les montagnards), so called from their seats, which were the highest on the left side of the hall, radicals, adherents of a united, indivisible republic (une et indivisible). They were composed of the leaders of the clubs of the Jacobins and the Cordeliers. Pétion, mayor of Paris.

1791, Aug. Meeting at Pillnitz between

1786-1797. Frederic William II., king of Prussia (Wöllner, Bischofswerder), and

1790-1792. Leopold II., the emperor.

Preliminary understanding in regard to Eastern matters, the political relations, and the French disturbances.

- 1791, Sept. Annexation of Avignon (massacres) and the Venaissin to France.
- 1792, Feb. Alliance between Austria and Prussia. Leopold was succeeded by
- 1792-1806. Francis II. (As emperor of Austria, Francis I. until 1835).
- 1792-1797. War between France and the First Coalition.

A Girondist ministry (Roland, Dumouriez) took the place of the constitutionalist ministry, whose fall was caused by the declaration of Pillnitz.

April 20. Declaration of war against Austria. Three armies in the field. Rochambeau (48,000), between Dunkirk and Philippeville; Lafayette (52,000), between Philippeville and Lauterbourg; Luckner (42,000), between Lauterbourg and Basle. The fortune of war was against the French, which increased the revolutionary excitement at Paris. Dismissal of the ministry of Roland (June 13).

June 20. Invasion of the Tuileries by the mob. Calm behavior of

the king; the bonnet rouge.

July 11. The Legislative Assembly pronounced the country in danger. Formation of a volunteer army of revolutionists throughout the country. Threatening manifesto of the duke of Brunswick.

The municipal council of Paris broken up and its place usurped by commissioners from the sections; the new commune (288 members).

- Aug. 10. (Tenth of August). Storm of the Tuileries by the mob, in consequence of an order given by the king to the Swiss guards, who were advancing victoriously, to cease firing. Massacre of the Swiss guards. The king took refuge in the hall of the
- Aug. 13. Assembly, was suspended, and placed in the tower of the temple (the old house of the Knights Templars). Numerous arrests of suspected persons. The Jacobins in power. Call of a national convention, elected by manhood suffrage, to draw up a constitution for the state.

Aug. 20. Lafayette, impeached and proscribed, fled, was captured by the Austrians and imprisoned in Olmütz (till 1796). Verdun taken by the Prussians; battles at Grandpré and Valmy.

- Sept. 2-7. Jail delivery at Paris: terrible massacre, lasting five days, of royalists and constitutionalists detained in the prisons, instigated by the city council and by Danton, the minister of justice. Like scenes took place at Versailles, Lyons, Rheims, Meaux and Orléans.
- 20 Sept. French (Dumouriez, Kellermann) success at Valmy against the allies (duke of Brunswick).
- 1792, Sept. 21-1795, Oct. National Convention composed entirely of republicans (749 members, 486 new men). Parties, Girondists (right, Vergniaud, Brissot)

and the Mountain (left; members for Paris, Robespierre, duke of Orléans (Philip Egalité), Danton, Collot d'Herbois.

1792. Abolition of the monarchy. France declared a Sept. 21. Republic.

Sept. 22 was the first day of the year one of the French republic. Citoyen et citoyenne; decree of perpetual banishment against emigrants; tu et toi. Inglorious retreat of the Prussians through Champagne to Luxembourg and across the Rhine. The French general, Custine, took Speier, Mainz, and Frankfort on the Main. Occupation of Nice and Savoy (Sept.).

1792. Victory of the French general Dumouriez at Jemmapes. He Nov. 6. took Brussels and conquered the Austrian Netherlands. The

Prussians retook Frankfort.

Nov. 19. Proclamation of the convention offering French assistance to all peoples who wished to throw off their present government.

Savoy and Nice annexed; the Schelde opened to commerce (p.

408).

1792, Dec.-1793, Jan. Trial of Louis XVI. before the convention.

Barrère prosecutor; Malesherbes, Desèze, Tronchet, for the defense.

Proposed appeal to the nation rejected. January 15, 683 votes out of 721 declared the king guilty. Jan. 16, 361 votes, exactly a majority (among them that of the duke of Orléans (Egalité), were cast unconditionally for death, 360 being cast for imprisonment, banishment, or death with respite.

1793, Jan. 21. Execution of Louis XVI.

Feb. 1. War declared against Great Britain, Holland, Spain.

England, Holland, Spain and the Empire, joined the alliance against France, Sardinia having been at war with the latter power since July, 1792. Annexation of Belgium. The emigrants, under the prince of Condé, proclaimed Louis XVII., who was a prisoner in the temple.

Royalistic revolt in the **Vendée**, upon occasion of a levy of recruits.

(Charette, Stofflet, Cathelineau, La Rochejaquelein).

The Austrians under the duke of Coburg defeated Dumouriez at Neerwinden (March 18), and recaptured Brussels. Dumouriez went over to the Austrians with the duke of Chartres, Louis Philippe, son of Egalité.

March 9. Establishment of the revolutionary tribunal.

At Paris, in the convention, struggle for life and death, between the Girondists and the Mountain. After the failure of the plan of the Orléanists, belonging to the Mountain, to make the duke of Orléans (Egalité), protector, all power centred in the Committee of General Security and the

1793. Committee of Public Safety (Comité du Salut April 6. Public). Composed of nine (afterwards twelve) members,

who exercised dictatorial power. Leaders: Danton (from the first); Robespierre, St. Just, Couthon (these three in July); afterwards, Carnot, who managed the military department only, and Collot d'Herbois (Sept.). The third, and in reality the greatest power in the state, was the commune of Paris, now reorganized on the basis of manhood suffrage, and acting though its committee, now numbering only twenty, at the Hôtel de Ville, under the guidance of Chaumette, and especially of Hébert (editor of Le Père Duchesne).

Financial difficulties. New issues of assignats based on the lands of the emigrants, the sale of which was ordered. Attempts to check the depreciation of assignats by severe penal-

ties.

June 2. An uprising of the mob, organized by the commune of Paris, commanded by *Henriot*, compelled the convention to ar-

rest thirty-one Girondists (Brissot, Vergniaud, Pétion).

The second, fully democratic constitution, as passed by the convention, was sent to the primary assemblies of voters for ratification, but never came to execution.

1793, July 13. Assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday (executed July 15).

1793-1794. Reign of Terror in France.

Robespierre at the head of the state. Revolutionary committees throughout the country. Commissaries of the committee of public safety committed unheard-of atrocities in the large cities of the provinces. Tallien at Bordeaux, Lebon in Arras, Carrier in Nantes,

Challier, Coulton, Fouché, Collot d'Herbois in Lyons.

Mainz captured by the Prussians after a siege of three months (July). The allies took the fortresses of Condé and Valenciennes. For this reason Custine was executed at Paris. The English laid siege to Toulon. The troops of the Republic were driven back at almost all points. Revolts in the interior, partially conducted by Girondists who had escaped from Paris. Energetic measures of the committee of public safety (Carnot).

1793, Aug. 23. Levy of the whole male population capable of bearing arms. Fourteen armies were soon placed in the field. Caen, Bordeaux, Marseilles, conquered by the republicans. Lyons Oct. captured after a two months' siege and partially destroyed; Massacre of the inhabitants (Collot, Fouché; la commune affran-

chie.)

Sept. 17. Establishment of a maximum price for a vast number of commodities; also for wages. The state exacted all its labor and goods at the maximum price and paid in assignats at the face value, the market value being one third of the face.

Law authorizing the imprisonment of all persons suspected (loi

des suspects) of being unfriendly to the republic.

Defeat of the Vendeans at Chollet (Oct. 20) and at Le Mans (Dec. 12). Revolutionary tribunal at Nantes (15,000 persons put to death in the three months of October, November, December by Carrier; noyades, fusillades, marriages republicains).

Oct. 16. Execution of the queen, Marie Antoinette.

Oct. 31. Execution of the Girondists (21). Reign of the revolutionary tribunal and the guillotine (Place de la Revolution, now Place de la Concorde); Fouquier-Tinville, public prosecutor. Sixty executions a month; neglect of legal forms.

Execution of Bailly, Egalité (Nov.), Madame Roland. Abolition of the worship of God. Cult of reason (Hébert, Chaumette, Cloots). Profanation of the royal sepulchre at St. Denis.

Revolutionary calendar. Beginning of the year one, Sept. 22, 1792. The months: Vendémiaire, Brumaire, Frimaire; Nivose, Pluviose, Ventose; Germinal, Floréal, Prairial; Messidor, Thermidor, Fructidor; each month had thirty days, five intercalary days (sans culottes), every tenth day a holiday. Transportation of priests.

Nov. 10. Festival of reason in Notre Dame. Abolition of the old Creation of a new army. Capture of Condé, Valenciennes, La Quesnoi by the allies (Coburg). Jourdan commander of

the French forces.

Oct. 11-13. Storm of the French lines at Weissenburg on the Rhine by Austrians and Prussians (Pichegru, commander of the French on the Rhine, Hoche, of the army on the Moselle.)

Nov. Defeat of Hoche by the duke of Brunswick at Kaiserslauten.

Pichegru defeated the Austrians under Wurmser. Retreat of Dec. the allies across the Rhine. Worms and Speier recaptured.

Toulon rescued from the English.

First appearance of Napoleon Bonaparte (b. Aug. 15, 1769, at Ajaccio in Corsica; 1779 at the military school in Brienne; 1785 lieutenant in Valence, 1793 captain; at Toulon, colonel; after the capture, brigadier-general; adherent of the revolutionary movement, in close connection with the Jacobins, particularly with the two Robespierres, although he afterward denied it.1

1794. Robespierre (representing the committee of public safety) crushed both parties which were opposed to him, the ultra-revolutionary commune (Hébertists) and the moderate Dantonists (the Mountain), using one against the other. After an unsuccessful at-

tempt at an insurrection

March 24. Condemnation and execution of the Hébertists (Chaumette, Hébert, Cloots, etc.). March 29, condemnation of the Dantonists.

Execution of Danton, Camille, Desmoulins, Hérault de April 6. Séchelles, etc.

Defeat of the allies by Pichegru at Tarcony.

Treaty of the Hague between England and Prussia; sub-April 19. sidies for 60,000 men.

Unhampered rule of the Committee of Public Safety. Robespierre abolished the worship of reason and caused the convention to pass a resolution acknowledging the existence of a supreme being.

June 8. Fêtes de l'Etre suprême; Robespierre high priest.

June 10. Portentous increase of power bestowed on the revolutionary tribunal. Juries to convict without hearing evidence or 1 P. Lanfrey, Histoire de Napoleon I.

argument. Enormous increase of executions, running up to 354 a month.

June 25. Capture of Charleroi by the French.

June 26. Battle of Fleurus, repulse of the allies under Coburg. Evacuation of Belgium.

An attempt to exterminate the Vendeans (Turreau) caused a fresh

outbreak of the war.

Conspiracy of the Mountain and the moderates against Robespierre (Tallien, Fréron, Fouché, Vadier, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud-Varennes).

1794, July 27 (9th Thermidor). Fall of Robespierre, arrest of the two Robespierres, of Couthon and St. Just; being released they were outlawed, surprised at the Hôtel de Ville, and executed, with eighteen others. On the following days over eighty of his party were executed. The commune was nearly extinct.

1794-1795. The National Convention controlled by the moderates.

Meanwhile the armies of the republic had been fortunate on the borders. The Prussians, victors at Kaiserslautern in May, 1794, after a second battle at the same place in Sept., retired across the Rhine. The duke of Coburg, defeated June 26, 1794, by Jourdan at Fleurus, resigned his command. The Austrians retired across the Rhine (see above).

In Paris the power of the commune, of the Jacobins, and of the mob was gradually broken by the *Thermidorians*, or the supporters of the moderate revolution, and by the violence of the young men of the upper classes (called later the *jeunesse dorée*). The Jacobin club closed (Nov. 12). Those Girondists who had escaped with their lives were readmitted to their seats in the convention (Dec. 8, 1794, March 8, 1795). Execution of *Carrier* and *Fouquier-Tinville*.

Public misery. Repeal of the maximum (Dec. 24, 1794). New issues, increased depreciation of assignats; in May, 1795, they were

worth 7 per cent.

1795, April 1 (Germinal 12). Bread riots in Paris; attack on the convent suppressed; transportation of Billaud, Collot, Barrère, Vadier. Growing reaction in the capital and the provinces. Return of emigrants. Reactionary terror (The White Terror).

May 20 (Prairial 1). Insurrection, or bread riot. Fierce attack upon the convention. Firmness of the president, Boissy d'Anglas. Suppression of the outbreak, May 20. Extermination of the Mountain.

Meantime the armies of France were everywhere successful. *Pichegru* had invaded Holland in the winter of 1794–1795. The hereditary stadthalter fled to England.

1795-1806. Batavian Republic founded, which surrendered Dutch Flanders to France. Tuscany withdrew from the coalition and concluded peace with France. Prussia, whose finances were exhausted and which had quarreled with Austria, concluded with the convention the

1795, April 5. Peace of Basle (Hardenberg),

which Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse-Cassel joined. Open conditions: 1. France continued in possession of the *Prussian* territory on the left bank of the Rhine, until peace should be concluded with the empire. 2. A line of demarkation fixed the neutrality of northern Germany. Secret articles: Prussia consented to the absolute cession of the left bank of the Rhine to France and received the assurance of a recompense through secularization.

After other notable successes of the French, Spain concluded the

1795, July. Peace of Basle. Spanish St. Domingo was ceded to France; all other conquests were restored (Godoy, the Spanish minister, prince of the peace).

In the naval war the English were for the most part in the ascend-

ency.

1795, June 8. Death of the ten-year-old dauphin (Louis XVII.) in the temple, where he had been most shamefully abused.¹

June 27. English and emigrants land at Quiberon (Brittany) to assist the royalists of that region (Chouans), but were defeated by

Hoche (June 15-20) and over 700 emigrants executed.

Retaliatory massacre of 1,000 republican prisoners by Charette. Conclusion of the war of the Vendée, defeat of the insurgents by *Hoche*. Execution of *Stofflet* and *Charette* (latter March 29, 1796).

At Paris adoption of a new (third) constitution. Constitution of the year III., or 1795. The executive power was given to a directory of five persons; the legislative to the council of elders (250), and the council of five hundred, but it was decreed that for the first term, two thirds of the members of both councils should be taken from among the members of the National Convention.

Opposition to this limitation of choice at Paris and in the provinces. The royalists in the capital instigated an outbreak of the sections (city districts or wards). On the motion of Barras, general Bonaparte was placed in command of the troops of the convention. Bona-

parte crushed the revolt by the bloody victory of the

1795, Oct. 5. 13th Vendémiaire, called the Day of the Sections. Cannonade from the church of St. Roch. The convention dissolved (Oct. 26) after having voted (Oct. 25, Brumaire 3) that relatives of emigrants could hold no office.

1795-1799. Government of the Directory in France.

Substitution of mandats convertible into a specified amount of land for the assignats, of which 145 billion francs had been issued.

In the Vendée, after a short truce, a new and bloody war, which spread to Brittany (Chouans). Hoche suppressed the revolt in the Vendée (ended March 5, 1796).

By the advice of Carnot the directory undertook a triple attack upon Austria. 1. The army of the Sambre and Meuse under Jourdan

¹ The death of the dauphin, officially established and evidenced by many witnesses, is beyond doubt. The pretenders who assumed his name later were, one and all, impostors.

advanced from the lower Rhine to Franconia; 2. the army of the Rhine and Moselle under Moreau penetrated from the upper Rhine to Swabia and Bavaria; 3. the army of Italy under Napoleon Bonaparte was to attack Austria in Italy, and unite with the two former by way of Tyrol.

The German campaign opened successfully for the French. Jourdan and Moreau invaded south Germany. Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria were compelled to conclude truces. Suddenly fortune

changed.

1796. Archduke Charles of Austria (brother of the emperor Francis) took the offensive against Jourdan, defeated him at Amberg (Aug.), and at Würzburg (Sept. 3). Jourdan retreated to the Sieg, and resigned his command. The archduke then turned upon Moreau, who retired to the upper Rhine (retreat through the Black Forest).

1796, Mar. 9. Marriage of Bonaparte with Josephine de Beauharnais.

1796. Brilliant campaign of Bonaparte in Italy. Starting from Nice he followed the coast, defeated the Austrians in the

April. Battles at Millesimo, the Piedmontese at Mondovi, and compelled the king of Sardinia, Victor Amadeus, to conclude

May. A separate peace. 1. Cession of Savoy and Nice to the French republic. 2. The French garrisoned the Piedmontese fortress.

Offensive and defensive alliance between France and Spain, the

latter declaring war on England.

May 10. Pursuit of the Austrians. Storming of the bridge over the Adda at Lodi; Napoleon entered Milan (May 15), conquered the whole of Lombardy as far as Mantua. The dukes of Parma and Modena, the Pope and Naples, purchased a truce with money and art treasures. Definite peace with the Pope at Tolentino in Feb. 1797; the Pope ceded the Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara.

1796-1797. Siege of Mantua. Four attempts on the part of July. Feb. the Austrians to relieve the fortress. The Austrians defeated at Castiglione, Roveredo, Bassano, at

Nov. 15-19. Arcole, and at

1797, Jan. Rivoli. Mantua surrendered (Feb. 2).

1797, March-April. Bonaparte crossed the Alps

to meet archduke Charles who was advancing from Germany. The inhabitants of the Venetian territory rose against the French; in Tyrol and Bohemia the people were called to arms. Bonaparte, in danger of being cut off, opened negotiations, which led to the conclusion of the

- 1797. Preliminary peace of Leoben, under the following condi-April 18. tions, which, however, were materially changed in the definite peace of Campo Formio (see below).
- 1. Austria ceded the Belgian provinces to France. 2. A congress should mediate for peace with the empire on the basis of the integrity of the empire. 3. Austria ceded the region beyond the Oglia,

receiving in return the Venetian territory between the Oglio, Po, and Adriatic (which she was to conquer for herself), Venetian Dalmatia and Istria, and the fortresses of Mantua, Peshiera, and Palma Nova. 4. Venice was to be indemnified with the Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara. 5. Austria recognized the Cisalpine Republic which was to be formed in northern Italy.

1797, May. The French declared war upon Venice, under pretext of an outbreak at Verona. Abolition of the aristocracy and establishment of popular government. Occupation of the republic by French troops; also of the Venetian islands of Greece (Ionian). Proclamation of the Cisalpine Republic (Milan, Modena,

Proclamation of the Cisalpine Republic (Milan, Modena, Ferrara, Bologna, Romagna). Transformation of the republic of

Genoa into the Ligurian Republic under French control.

1797, Sept. 4. 18th Fructidor. Coup d'Etat at Paris. Victory of the republican party over the party of reaction, which was represented in the council of five hundred, in the council of ancients, and in the directory. The three republican directors, Barras, Rewbel, and La Révellière defeated their colleagues, Barthélemy and Carnot. The latter escaped by flight; Barthélemy and many of his adherents, including Pichegru, were transported to Cayenne.

After lengthy negotiations, France and Austria concluded the

Oct. 17. Peace of Campo Formio.

Open articles: 1. Austria ceded the Belgian provinces to France. 2. A congress was convened at Rastadt to discuss peace with the empire. 3. Austria received the territory of Venice as far as the Adige, with the city of Venice, Istria, and Dalmatia. 4. France retained the Ionian islands. 5. Austria recognized the Cisalpine Republic and indemnified the duke of Modena with the Breisgau. Secret articles: 1. Austria agreed to the cession of the left bank of the Rhine from Basle to Andernach, including Mainz, to France; the navigation of the Rhine was left open to France and Germany in common; those princes who lost by the cession were to receive indemnification in Germany. 2. France was to use her influence to secure to Austria, Salzburg, and that portion of Bavaria which lay between Salzburg, the Tyrol, the Inn, and the Salza. 3. Reciprocal guarantee that Prussia should not receive any new acquisition of territory in return for her cessions on the left bank of the Rhine.

1796-1801. Paul I., Emperor of Russia, succeeded his mother Catharine II. (p. 411).

1797-1840. Frederic William III., King of Prussia. Wöllner dismissed. Edict of religion revoked.

1797, Dec.-1799, April. Congress of Rastadt. No agreement.

1798. The French occupied Rome. Proclamation of the

Feb. Roman Republic. Captivity of the Pope, Pius IV.
Disturbances in Switzerland. The French entered the country.
The confederacy transformed into one

1798, April. Helvetian Republic. Geneva annexed to France. 1798-1799. Bonaparte's Egyptian expedition,

prepared under the mask of an invasion of England, against whose East Indian Empire this expedition was in truth directed. Army of England at Boulogne. The opposition of the directory being overcome the fleet sailed from Toulon (May 19, 1798), with 35,000 men, accompanied by a large number of scientists. Bonaparte, Berthier, Kléber, later, Desaix. Capitulation and occupation of Malta (June 12), disembarkation in Egypt (July 1). Capture of Alexandria (July 2). Battle of the Pyramids won against the Mamelukes (July 21). Capture of Cairo (July 22). Desaix advances toward upper Egypt. The English fleet annihilated the French in the

1798. Battle of the Nile at Aboukir (Nelson), thus cut-

Aug. 1. ting off the French army from France.

A popular uprising in Cairo suppressed. The Porte having declared war upon France, Bouaparte attacked the pasha of Syria, stormed Jaffa (massacre of 1200 prisoners) but was unable to capture St. Jean d'Acre (Akko), the defense of which was supported by the English. Bonaparte victorious over the Turks at Mt. Tabor (April 16). Pestilence in the French army. Retreat to Egypt. Arrival of the Turks at Aboukir, where they were completely defeated by Bonaparte (Murat), 1799, July 25.

1799-1801. War of the second coalition,

composed of Russia, Austria, England, Portugal, Naples, the Ottoman Porte, and owing its origin chiefly to Paul I., emperor of Province where the Knights of Molta had elected grand most are

Russia, whom the Knights of Malta had elected grand master.

Plan of the allies: 1. An English-Russian army (duke of York) was to drive the French from the Netherlands. 2. An Austrian army (archduke Charles) should drive thom out of Germany and Switzerland, while 3. a Russian-Austrian army expelled them from Italy (Suvaroff and Melas).

The war began in the latter part of 1798 by a Neapolitan invasion of the Roman Republic, under the Austrian general *Mark*. The invasion was repulsed, the king of Naples fled to Palermo, the kingdom of Naples was occupied by the French and transformed into the

1799. Parthenopæan Řepublic. The grand duke of Tuscany was Jan. driven from his domains. The king of Sardinia escaped from Turin and took up his residence in Cagliari in Sardinia; his for-

tresses upon the mainland were placed under French control. After

1802 they were annexed to France.

The directory opposed to the coalition six armies under as many commanders. 1. Brune in Holland; 2. Bernadotte on the middle Rhine; 3. Jourdan on the upper Rhine; 4. Massena in Switzerland; 5. Scherer, afterwards Moreau, in upper Italy; 6. Macdonald in Naples. 1799. Jourdan, defeated by archduke Charles at Ostrach and Stock-March. ach, retreated across the Rhine and laid down his command.

April. Scherer defeated by the Austrians at Magnano. His successor, Moreau, defeated by the Austrians (Melas) and Russians (Suvaroff) at Cassano. Abolition of the Cisalpine Republic.

1799, April 8. Dissolution of the Congress of Rastadt. Mysterious murder of the French ambassadors, Roberjot and Bonnier (Debry escaped), on their journey home, by Austrian hussars from

Transylvania (Apr. 28).

June 4-7. Massena defeated by archduke Charles at Zürich. Macdonald being called to upper Italy, the king of Naples returned and the Parthenopæan Republic was abolished. Terrible vengeance, accompanied by massacres. Nelson, Lady Hamilton. Abolition of the Roman Republic.

June 17-19. Macdonald defeated by Suvaroff on the Trebbia. Mantua taken by the allies. The directory sent Joubert to Italy

with a new army. He was defeated in the bloody

Aug. 15. Battle of Novi by Suvaroff and Melas. Joubert.† Suvaroff crossed the Alps by the pass of St. Gothard in order to unite with the second Russian army under Korsakoff, who had taken the place of archduke Charles when the latter went to the middle Rhine, in Switzerland.

His army however had already been defeated at Zurich by Massena. Suvaroff left Switzerland after a series of terrible battles and

marches, and returned to Russia.

A Russian-Turkish fleet had wrested the Ionian islands from French control in May, 1799. Erection of the Republic of the Ionian Islands under Turkish protection, and the guarantee of Russia, which occupied the same until 1807.

- June 18. Revolution of 3d Prairial. Reorganization of the directory under Sieyès; a revolution which resulted in the return of Bonaparte.
- 1799, Oct. The duke of York was defeated and capitulated at Alkmar.
- Oct. 8. Bonaparte, returning unannounced from Egypt, landed at Fréjus, and in alliance with the directors,
- June. Sieyès and Roger-Ducos and his brother, Lucien Bonaparte, president of the council of five hundred, overthrew the directory by the
- Nov. 9, Coup d'Etat of the 18th Brumaire, and broke up the council of five hundred upon the following day.

1799-1804. The Government of the Consulate

with Napoleon Bonaparte as regent under the title of first consul for ten years, and two consuls appointed by him, Cambacérès and

Lebrun, who had consultative voices only.

The new (fourth) constitution (constitution of the year VIII.), originally devised by Sieyès, but essentially changed by Napoleon, and accepted by direct vote of the whole nation (3,000,000 to 1,567), preserved the appearance of a republic but in reality established a military monarchy. A senate (80 well paid senators elected for life with but little to do), appointed, from lists of names sent in by the departments, the members of the legislative department, the higher officials and the judges. Legislative power without the initiative: 1. tribunate

(100) discussed the proposals of the government without voting.

2. The legislative chamber (300) could only accept or reject these proposals, without debate. The executive power was in the hands of the first consul, who was aided by a council of state.

The people voted for notables of the communes, who then elected a tenth of their number as notables of the departments, whence were elected a tenth portion, the notables of France, from which latter list

the senate appointed the members of the legislative bodies.

Establishment of prefectures (administration of the departments) and sub-prefectures (administration of the arrondissements), and consequent creation of that centralization which still prevails in France. New system of tax-collection; receveur-général for each department (abolished under the second empire), receveur particulier for each arron-

dissement. Code Napoléon commenced.

The overtures of peace made by the first consul were rejected. Paul, emperor of Russia, however, was won over by Napoleon's flattery, and withdrew from the coalition. Defensive alliance between Russia and Sweden (1799), closer connection between Russia and Prussia. Paul quarreled with England in regard to Malta. Renewal of the previous (1780) armed neutrality at sea (p. 536). Northern convention (1800).

1800. Double campaign of the French in Italy under Napoleon Bonaparte, in Upper Germany under Moreau.

April. A. In Italy.

Massena defeated at Voltri; Melas advanced to Nice. Obstinate defense of Genoa by Massena (and Soult); after a terrine 4. ble famine (15,000 people perished) the city capitulated to

May. Ott. Meantime passage of the Great St. Bernard by Bonaparte. (The fortress of Bard, passed by a detour).

- June 2. Capture of *Milan*. Restoration of the Cisalpine Republic. General *Melas*, after a brave contest, and after victory had once been in his hands, defeated by a second attack in the
- 1800, June 14. Battle of Marengo, by Napoleon.

Desaix †. According to the truce concluded with Melas, all fortresses west of the *Mincio* and south of the Po were surrendered by the Austrians to the French.

- B. In Germany: Moreau crossed the Rhine from Alsace in April, and advanced, winning victories at Engen and Stockach, toward Kray (May). Moreau in Munich (July). Truce until November. Recommencement of hostilities. Moreau defeated the archduke John in the
- 1800, Dec. 3. Battle of Hohenlinden,

captured Salzburg and advanced to the Linz. Truce of Steyer. After Brune in Italy had won a battle on the Mincio (Dec.) and had crossed the Adige (Jan. 1, 1801), a truce was concluded in Treviso, which was succeeded by the

1801, Feb. 9. Peace of Lunéville, from which the abolition of the old Holy Roman Empire practically dates.

Chief conditions: 1. Ratification of the cessions made by Austria and to her in the peace of Campo Formio (p. 459). 2. Cession of the grand duchy of Tuscany (Austrian secundogeniture) to Parma, to be indemnified in Germany. 3. The Emperor and Empire consented to the cession of the left bank of the Rhine to France, the valley of the Rhine (i. e. the middle of the river), the boundary. The princes who lost by this operation received indemnification in Germany. 4. Recognition of the Batavian, Helvetian, Cisalpine, and Ligurian Republics. Germany lost by this peace, taking the Belgic territory into account, 25,180 square miles with almost 3,500,000 inhabitants. The German princes received an increase of territory. The shameful negotiations over the indemnifications lasted more than two years (p. 465), during which time the ambassadors of German princes haunted the antechambers of the First Consul to beg for better terms, and bribed French ambassadors, secretaries and their mistresses.

Tuscany was transformed into the kingdom of Etruria, for the satisfaction of Parma. Besides losing Parma, a Spanish secundogeniture, Spain ceded Louisiana to France, which afterwards sold it to the United States (1803). The peace of Lunéville was succeeded, after conclusion of a truce, by the

1801, March 18. Peace of Florence with Naples. Conditions:

1. Closure of the harbors to British and Turkish vessels. 2. Cession of the Neapolitan possessions in central Italy and the island of Elba. 3. Reception of French garrisons in several Italian towns.

Prussia joined the Northern Convention against England. Occupa-

tion of Hanover.

1801, March 23. Paul I., Emperor of Russia, murdered. He was succeeded by his son,

1801-1825. Alexander I.

Reconciliation between Russia and England (in 1801 England had attacked Denmark, the ally of Russia, and forced her to withdraw from the Northern Convention). The Northern Convention was now dissolved.

1800. Conspiracies against the life of Bonaparte. Infernal machines. 130 "Terrorists and Jacobins" transported, although

the attempts had originated with the royalists.

In Egypt the chief command after the departure of Bonaparte had devolved upon Kléber, who defeated the Turks in the battle of Hieropolis (1800, March). After the murder of Kléber at Cairo (June), Menou became commander-in-chief. He concluded a treaty with the English at Cairo (1801), under which Egypt was to be abandoned and returned to the Ottoman Porte, and the French army transported to France by the English fleet.

801. Union of Ireland with Great Britain under one parliament. In France restoration of the Catholic worship, and after long

negotiations with the papacy, conclusion of a

1801. Concordat (executed in 1802), whereby the (10) French archbishops and (50) bishops were to be appointed and supported by the government, and confirmed by the Pope. Pius VIII., elected in 1800 in Venice, was recognized in the possession of the

Papal States, without Ferrara, Bologna, and the Romagna. The liberties of the Gallican church were strongly asserted. By the new organization of the "Université," an incorporated body of teachers who had passed a state examination, the entire system of higher education was made dependent upon the government. The institut national was reorganized and divided into four (later five) academies: 1. académie française (1635); 2. a. des inscriptions et belles-lettres (1663, 1701); 3. a. des sciences (1666); 4. a. des beaux arts (1648); 5. a. des sciences morales et politiques (1832).

After the withdrawal of the younger Pitt from the English cabi-

net, and after long negotiations, the 1802. March 27. Peace of Amiens

was concluded between England and France.

1. Surrender of all conquests made by England to France and her allies, excepting Trinidad which was ceded by Spain, and Ceylon which was ceded by the Batavian Republic. 2. France recognized the Republic of the Seven Ionian Islands. Malta must be restored to the order of the Knights of Malta. In consequence of this peace, peace was concluded between France and the Porte.

Creation of the order of the Legion of Honor (May 19, 1802). Assumption of regal state and authority. Napoleon Bonaparte caused

himself to be elected by a popular vote (plebescite, 3½ millions),

1802, August 2. Consul for life, with the right of appointing his successor.

New (fifth) constitution. The powers of the senate, which was ruled by the first consul, were enlarged; the importance of the legis-

lative bodies and the tribunate was very decidedly reduced.

Napoleon had already become president of the Italian Republic, as the Cisalpine Republic was henceforward called. Elba and Piedmont were annexed to France. Military interference of the French in Switzerland, which was torn with civil dissensions. The act of mediation restored the independence of the separate cantons, but the country remained still so far a single state that it was represented by a landamman and a diet.

As regards the internal relations of Germany, the peace of Lunéville was executed according to a plan of indemnification established by France and Russia by the

1803, Feb. Enactment of the delegates of the empire. (Reichs-

deputationshauptschluss).1

Of the ecclesiastical estates there were left only: 1. the former elector of Mainz, now electoral archchancellor, with a territory formed out of the remains of the archbishopric of Mainz on the right bank of the Rhine, the bishopric of Regensburg, and the cities of Regensburg and Witzlar. 2. the masters of the order of St. John, and the Teutonic order. 3. Of the 48 free imperial cities which still existed, only 6 were left, the 3 Hanseatic cities: Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, and Frankfort, Augsburg, Nuremberg. All other ecclesiastical estates and imperial cities were devoted to indemnifications. The electoral bishoprics of Trier and Cologne were abolished. Four new electorates: Hesse-Cassel, Baden, Würtemburg, Salzburg.

¹ Eichhorn, Deutsche Staats u. rechtsgeschichte, IV. § 606.

Principal Indemnifications: 1. The grand duchy of Tuscany: Salzburg, and Berechtsgaden. 2. Duke of Modena: Breisgau (in exchange for which Austria received the ecclesiastical foundations of Trient and Brixen). 3. Bavaria: bishoprics of Würzburg, Bamberg, Freising, Augsburg, the majority of the prelacies and imperial cities in Franconia and eastern Swabia, in return for which, 4. Baden received that portion of the Palatinate lying on the right bank of the Rhine (Heidelberg, Mannheim). Baden also received: the portion of the bishopries of Constance, Basle, Strasburg, Speyer, on the right bank of the Rhine, and many ecclesiastical foundations and imperial cities. 5. Würtemberg: many abbeys, monasteries, and imperial cities, especially Reutlingen, Esslingen, Heilbronn, etc. Prussia: the bishoprics of Paderborn, Hildesheim, the part of Thuringia which had belonged to Mainz (Eichfeld and Erfurt), a part of Münster, many abbeys, particularly Quedlinburg, and the imperial cities, Mühlhausen, Nordhausen, Goslar. 7. Oldenburg: bishopric of Lübeck. Hanover: bishopric of Osnabrück. 9. Hesse (Darmstadt and Cassel) and Nassau divided the portions of the archbishoprics of Mainz, Trier and Cologne, which remained, upon the right bank of the Rhine. 10. Nassau-Orange: bishopric of Fulda, and abbey of Corvey. a rule the indemnified princes gained considerably in territory and subjects.

1803. New dissensions between France and England, caused by the refusal to surrender Malta and the quarrels of the journalists. The French occupied Hanover, where they nearly exhausted the

resources of the state. The encampment at Boulogne threatened

England with an invasion.

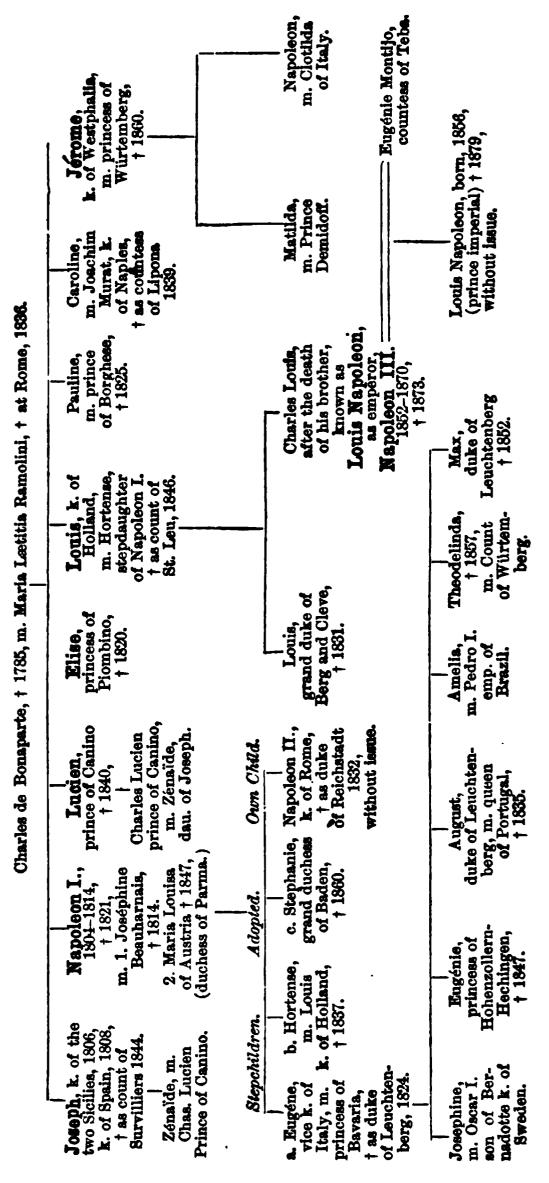
Conspiracy against the life of the First Consul discovered (1804, Feb.). Pichegru met a mysterious death in prison, George Cadoudal was executed. Moreau fled to America. The duke of Enghien, a Bourbon prince of the branch line of Condé, was taken by violence from the territory of Baden, condemned by a commission acting in accordance with the wishes and under the order of Napoleon, without the observation of any of the forms of law, and shot at Vincennes on the night of March 20–21. On the 18th of May the tribunate and senate proclaimed the Consul Bonaparte,

1804-1814 (15) Napoleon I., Hereditary Emperor of the French.

The succession was in the male line, the emperor having the privilege of adopting the children of his brothers, in default of which and of direct issue, the crown was to go to Joseph and Louis Bonaparte. The election was ratified by a popular election, by means of lists to which the people signed their names (3,572,329 to 2,569). The emperor was consecrated at Paris by *Pius VII*. (Dec. 2), placing the crown upon his own head. (Imitation of Pepin and especially of

¹ That no misunderstandings took place, as is asserted by Thiers and others, throughout the whole shameful proceeding, that Napoleon I. afterwards endeavored in all ways to conceal the truth, and that the guilt of this premeditated murder rests mainly upon himself, has been proved by Lanfrey, Histoire de Napoleon I. iii. 128, foll.

THE BONAPARTE FAMILY.



Charles the Great, who, as Charlemagne, was transformed into a Frenchman and prototype of Napoleon). Establishment of a brilliant court. Grand dignitaries of the empire; eighteen marshals. New nobility. An absolute monarchy of the purest type. (Abolition of the tribunate, 1807.)

1805. Napoleon king of Italy. His stepson Eugène Beauharnais, son of Josephine, viceroy of Naples. The Ligurian Republic incorporated with France.

1805. Third coalition against France,

between England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden (Gustavus IV.), for the purpose of restoring the balance of power in Europe.

Spain allied with France.

The camp at Boulogne broken up. The French armies under Davout, Soult, Lannes, Ney, advanced toward the Rhine. The main force of the Austrians in Italy under archduke Charles opposed to Massena; in Germany, under archduke Ferdinand and Mack. Napoleon commanded in person in Germany; relying on the support of most of the south German states, he advanced to meet the Austrians who had invaded Bavaria. On the upper Danube he concentrated his forces (200,000 men), reinforced by Bernadotte, who on his way from Hanover had marched through the neutral territory of Ansbach in Prussia, and by troops from Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, Hesse, Nassau. After the Austrians (80,000 men) had been defeated in several engagements, and the main army was surrounded by the French,

1805. Mack surrendered in Ulm with the whole Austrian army

Oct. 17. (30,000 men), prisoners of war.

On the sea England opened the war brilliantly with the

1805. Victory of Nelson at Trafalgar

Oct. 21. over the French and Spanish fleet. Death of Nelson ("England expects every man to do his duty"). This vic-

tory broke the naval power of France.

The French marched upon Vienna, which was taken by Murat without resistance. Archduke Charles, who had driven back Massena, returned to Germany; a Russian army under Kutusoff, a second under the emperor Alexander, came to the assistance of Austria. In the

1805. Battle of Austerlitz (the battle of the three em-Dec. 2. perors), Napoleon defeated the united forces of Austria and Russia. Truce with Austria. Retreat of the Russians.

Dec. 15. Treaty concluded by Prussia, which was on the point of joining the coalition, with Napoleon at Schönbrunn (Haugwitz). Prussia ceded to France the remaining part of Cleve (Wesel) on the left bank of the Rhine, Ansbach, and Neuchâtel, and was promised Hanover in exchange.

Dec. 26. Peace of Pressburg, between France and Austria.

1. France received Piedmont, Parma, and Piacenza. 2. Austria ceded to the kingdom of Italy all that she had received of Venetian

Istria and Dalmatia, and recognized Napoleon as king of Italy. 3. Austria ceded to Bavaria: Tyrol, Vorarlberg, the bishoprics Brixen and Trient, Burgau, Eichstadt, Passau, Lindau, besides which Bavaria received the free city of Augsburg. 4. Austria ceded to Würtemberg and Baden what remained of the western Austrian lands. 5. Bavaria and Würtemberg were recognized as kingdoms. 6. Austria received as indemnification: Salsburg, Berchtesgaden, and the estates of the Teutonic order which were secularized. The elector of Salzburg received Würzburg from Bavaria as indemnification. Russia remained hostile.

1805. The Bourbons in Naples were dethroned by a proclamation Dec. issued by Napoleon from Schönbrunn (La dynastie de Naples a cessé de régner).

1806. Joseph, Napoleon's elder brother, king of Naples. The

court of Naples withdrew to Palermo.

Sicily was beyond Napoleon's reach, as the English controlled the

Joachim Murat, brother-in-law of Napoleon, created grand duke of Berg; Marshal Berthier, prince of Neuchâtel; Louis Bonaparte, Napoleon's third brother, king of Holland (the former Batavian Republic).

1806. Establishment of the Confederacy of the Rhine.

July 12.

Napoleon, protector. Prince Primas, formerly electoral archehancellors: the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg; the grand dukes of Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Berg, duke of Nassau, etc. Afterwards all the German princes joined the confederation except Austria, Prussia, Brunswick, and the electorate of Hesse.

Many princes holding immediately of the empire mediatized. The free city of Nuremberg assigned to Bavaria, Frankfort to the prince

primas (grand duke of Frankfort).

Emperor Francis, who had already assumed the title of emperor of his hereditary Austrian estates (1804),

1806, Aug. 6. Abdicated the crown of the Holy Roman empire. End of the old German empire.

1806–1835. Francis I., emperor of Austria.

1806-1807. (Fourth) War with Prussia and Russia.

Grounds of the Prussian declaration of war: Erection of the confederacy of the Rhine, annexation of Wesel, seizure of Essen and Verden, garrisoning of half of Germany with French troops; Napoleon's offer to England to take away from Prussia the territory of Hanover which had just been forced upon her; the Prussians were, moreover, embittered against the French by the high-handed execution of Palm, a bookseller of Nuremberg, who had published some strictures upon Napoleon.

Dangerous situation of Prussia at the outbreak of war. The complete separation of the military and civil orders had brought it about

that the safety of the state rested on a half-trained army composed in part of foreigners, on a superannuated general, and on subordinate commanders who, full of arrogant pride in the ancient military fame of Prussia, regarded the French with contempt. No allies except Saxony and distant Russia. Dissension between Prussia and England. Want of decision in the cabinet and in the conduct of the war.

1806. Concentration of the Prussian army in Thuringia under the old duke of Brunswick. Defeat of the Prussian advance at Saalfeld (Oct. 10), prince Louis Ferdinand †. In the

1806, Oct. 14. Double battle of Jena and Auerstädt the main army was completely defeated. Dissolution of the army. The reserve under the prince of Würtemberg was defeated and scattered at Halle (Oct. 17).

Napoleon in Berlin (Oct. 27). The prince of Hohenlohe with 12,000 men was forced to surrender at Prenzlau (Oct. 28). Blücher after a brave defence in Lübeck was obliged to surrender his whole corps at Ratkau as prisoners of war (Nov. 7). Incredibly hasty surrender of the fortresses: Erfurt, Spandau, Stettin, Küstrin, Magdeburg, Hameln; only Kolberg (Gneisenau, Schill, Nettelbeck) and Graudenz (Courbière) defended themselves resolutely. The duke of Brunswick († Nov. 10, at Ottensen) and the neutral elector of Hesse were driven out of the country. Coarse behavior of Napoleon toward the royal family (queen Louisa). Robbery of the museums and picture galleries. From his headquarters in Berlin Napoleon proclaimed (Nov. 21) the senseless (parer) blockade of Great Britain and the closure of the continent to British trade, a policy summed up in the title, "Continental System" ("Berlin decree"). The troops of France, Bavaria, and Würtemberg invaded Silesia. The Poles summoned to revolt. Separate peace and alliance of Napoleon with the elector of Saxony (Dec. 11), who joined the confederacy of the Rhine as king of Saxony. Occupation of Hanover and the Hanseatic cities.

1807. Fall of Breslau, followed by that of the most of the Silesian fortresses. After several bloody engagements in the neighborhood of Pultusk, Prussians and Russians fought against the

French, without decisive result, in the murderous

1807, Feb. 7. 8. Battle of Eylau, where the Prussians repulsed the right wing of the French under Davout. Winter quarters. Frederic William III. went to Memel.

May 24. Danzig captured after a brave defense (Kalckreuth). After several engagements Napoleon was victorious in the

June 14. Battle of Friedland,

over the Russians. Königsberg and the country as far as the Niemen occupied by Napoleon. Truce with Russia (June 21), with Prussia (June 25). Meeting of Napoleon, Alexander, and Frederic William on the Niemen.

1807. Peace of Tilsit.

July 7. A. Between France and Russia.

July 9. B. Between France and Prussia.

A. 1. Russia recognized the duchy of Warsaw, which was formed out of South Prussia, parts of West Prussia, and New East Prussia, under the king of Saxony. 2. Danzig restored to the condition of a free city. 3. A part of New East Prussia (Bialystock) ceded to Russia. 4. Russia recognized Joseph Bonaparte as king of Naples, Louis Bonaparte as king of Holland, Jerome Bonaparte as king of Westphalia, a new kingdom yet to be created; Russia, moreover, recognized the confederacy of the Rhine, and accepted the mediation of Napoleon in concluding peace with the Turks, while Napoleon accepted the like good offices from Alexander in regard to England. In a secret article, Alexander agreed to an alliance with France against England, in case the latter refused to accept the proffered peace.

B. 1. Prussia ceded: a. to Napoleon for free disposal, all lands between the Rhine and Elbe; b. to Saxony, the circle of Cottbus; c. all lands taken from Poland since 1772 for the creation of a duchy of Warsaw, also the city and territory of Danzig. 3. All Prussian harbors and lands were closed to British ships and British trade until the conclusion of a peace with England. 4. Prussia was to maintain a standing army of not more than 42,000 men. In regard to the restoration and evacuation of the Prussian provinces and fortresses, it was settled by the treaty of Königsberg (July 12), that Prussia should

first pay all arrears of war indemnities.

These indemnifications, fixed at nineteen million francs by the Prussian calculations, were set at 120 millions by the French, which sum was raised to 140 millions in 1808. After 120 millions had been paid the fortresses were evacuated, excepting Stettin, Küstrin, and Glogau. Until this occurred the Prussian state, reduced as it was from 89,120 to 46,032 square miles, was obliged to support 150,000 French troops.

1807, Aug. Foundation of the kingdom of Westphalia (capital, Cassel) by a decree of Napoleon, who reserved for himself

half of the domains.

High-handed proceeding of the English against Denmark, which had been summoned to join the continental system. An English fleet bombarded (1807, Sept.) Copenhagen, and carried off the Danish fleet. Alliance of Denmark with France. Russia declared war upon England. Stralsund and Rügen occupied by the French.

Portugal, which refused to join the continental system, occupied by a French army under *Junot* (duke of Abrantes) Nov. 1807.

The royal family fied to Brazil. Milan decree, Dec. 17, 1807.

Spain invaded by 100,000 Frenchmen under the pretext of guarding the coasts against the English. Charles IV. (1788–1808) abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand (March, 1808), in consequence of an outbreak which had occurred against his favorite, the prince of the peace, Godoy. Father and son, with Godoy, were enticed by Napoleon to Bayonne and compelled to renounce the throne (May). Napoleon's brother Joseph became king of Spain, Murat taking the throne of Naples instead of Joseph. General uprising of the Spaniards.¹

¹ The Spaniards never forgave this insult to their loyalty. The interference Spain was Napoleon's greatest mistake, and the almost direct cause of his fall. [Trans.]

1808-1814. War between Napoleon and Great Britain in Spain and Portugal. ("Peninsula War.")

The English landed in Portugal and forced Junot to surrender Cintra, after which he was obliged to evacuate the country (Sir Arthur Wellesley). The French were soon driven back to the Ebro. Napoleon, secured against Austria by a closer alliance with the emperor Alexander, since the assembly of princes at Erfurt, where four kings, thirty-four princes, and other German rulers who had done him homage, hastened in person to Spain with 250,000 men, advanced to Madrid, and with Soult drove the English from Spain (battle of Corunna Jan. 16, 1809. Death of Sir John Moore). After the departure of Napoleon hostilities continued in Spain. Guerrilla warfare. The English returned. Heroic defense of Saragossa (Palafox), which surrendered in Feb. 1809. The English general, Sir Arthur Wellesley (b. 1769; officer in East India 1797-1805; M. P. 1806; viscount Wellington, 1809; duke of Wellington, 1814; prime minister, 1827-1830; d. 1852, Sept. 18), after his victory over *Joseph* at Talavera, July 28, 1809, was created viscount Wellington, and made commander-in-chief of all English troops in the Spanish peninsula. Soult, duke of Dalmatia, at first victorious against the Spanish and Portuguese, was obliged to evacuate Oporto again.

In Prussia, meanwhile, the state was reorganized after the dismissal of Beymes and Zastrow, by Charles, baron of and in Stein (b. 1757 at Nassau; since 1780, in Prussian civil service; 1796 overpresident of the chamber of Westphalia; 1804 minister of finance, d. 1831), and Hardenberg. Regulations for the cities, liberation of industry, abolition of hereditary serfdom, reformation of the administration of the public finances. Reorganization of the army on the basis of universal military service, by Gneisenau, Grolman, Boyen, Clausewitz, Scharnhorst (b. 1756, in Hanover, son of a peasant, officer in the service of Hanover, 1801 lieutenant-colonel in Prussia, taken prisoner at Ratkau with Blücher, major-general at Eylau; d. 1813).

Foundation of the university at Berlin (1810), by Humboldt, Altenstein, Niebuhr, Schleiermacher. Fichte's addresses to the German nation. Tugendbund. Gymnastics, Jahn. E. M. Arndt. Preparations for the liberation of Germany and Europe from the French yoke. Futile attempt of Austria to accomplish this liberation alone, by making use of Napoleon's entanglement in the Spanish war.

1808, July-Nov. English expedition to Walcheren (p. 537).

1809. (Fifth) War with Austria.

Archduke Charles, commander of the Austrian army of Bavaria, and archduke John, commander of the Austrian forces which were sent to Italy, summoned the German people to take part in the struggle against the French supremacy. Tyrol alone heeded the summons, and took up arms (Andreas Hofer, Speckbacher).

Napoleon engaged archduke Charles in Bavaria, with German Apr. 19-23. troops, drove him over the Danube to Bohemia, after five days' fighting at Abensberg, Landshut, Eckmühl and Re-May 11. gensburg, and captured Vienna for the second time. Napoleon crossed the island of Lobau, to the left bank of the Danube, where in the bloody

1809, May 21-22. Battle at Aspern and Essling (on the Marchfeld), he was, for the first time, defeated by archduke Charles, and (Lannes †) forced to recross the Danube (Massena), where he united with the viceroy Eugene, who had pursued archduke John from northern Italy to Hungary and defeated him at Raab. With 180,000 men Napoleon crossed the Danube anew, defeated archduke Charles in the murderous

1809, July 5-6. Battle of Wagram, and pursued him toward Moravia. Truce of Znaim.

Oct. 14. Peace of Vienna

between France and Austria, signed in the palace at Schönbrunn.

1. Austria ceded a territory of 32,000 square miles, containing 3½ million inhabitants, viz.: a. Salzburg and Berchtesgaden, the Innviertel, and half of the Hausrückviertel to Bavaria; b. West Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw; c. one district in East Gallicia (Tarnopol) to Russia; d. the lands beyond the Save, the circle of Villach, Istria, Hungarian Dalmatia, and Ragusa to the emperor Napoleon, who created from these cessions and the Ionian Islands, which Russia had surrendered to him in 1807, the new state of the Illyrian provinces under Marmont, duke of Ragusa, as governor. 2. Austria joined the continental system, and broke off all connection with England.

The Tyrolese, left to themselves, continued the war with heroic courage, but were in the end subdued. Hofer captured and shot by the. French at Mantua (1810). Southern Tyrol annexed to the king-

dom of Italy.

Bold attempt of Schill, a Prussian major, to precipitate the war of liberation. With 600 hussars he left Berlin in the spring of 1809, and summoned the people of Germany to take up arms. The news of Napoleon's victories on the Danube frustrated the scheme. Schill fell fighting bravely at Stralsund (May 31). Eleven of his officers were court-martialed and shot in Wesel, the captured soldiers were condemned to hard labor by order of Napoleon, carried to France, and after a half year's imprisonment in the bagnio, or prison for galley-slaves, enrolled among the French coast guards.

9. Bold expedition of the duke of Brunswick across northern Germany. He succeeded in transporting himself and the "Black

Legion" to England.

Gustavus IV., of Sweden, a bitter opponent of the Revolution and of Napoleon, but ignorant of the true interests of his country, had been since 1808 involved in war with Russia, which had conquered Finland. He fell at last by a military revolution, the victim of his obstinacy. The capital, Stockholm, being threatened by the passage of the Russians under Barclay de Tolly over the frozen gulf of Bothnia, by the capture of Tornea and that of the islands of Aland, a mutiny broke out in the Swedish army. The king was arrested on March 13, 1809, by generals Klingspor and Adlerkreuz, obliged to abdicate, and dismissed from the kingdom with his family. The crown was given to the uncle of the king, Charles XIII. (1809–1818), passing over his

son. In the peace of Friedrichsham with Russia, Sept. 17, 1809, Sweden surrendered to Russia the principality of Finland as far as the river Torneå, together with the islands of Aland. By the mediation of Russia Sweden concluded the peace of Paris with France, Jan. 6, 1810, whereby Sweden joined the continental system and obtained the restoration of Swedish Pommerania. After the sudden death of prince Christian August of Holstein-Augustenburg, whom Charles XIII. had adopted and appointed heir to the throne, the French marshal Bernadotte (prince of Pontecorvo) was elected crown prince of Sweden.

Rome had been occupied by the French in 1808. Pope Pius VII. steadfastly refusing to enter into an offensive and defensive alliance with France, and to close his seaports against England, Napoleon, after the infliction of unheard-of violence for a year, proclaimed from Schönbrunn, May, 1809, that the papal states and the city of Rome were incorporated with France. Pius VII. excommunicated Napoleon in June, whereupon he was arrested and taken over Mt. Cenis to Grenoble and thence to Savona. As he still refused to yield to Napoleon's demands, Pius VII. was placed on prisoner's allowance, and lived for three years almost entirely upon alms (1812 taken to Fontainebleau.)

In **Turkey**, after the deposition of *Selim III*., war broke out again with *Russia* (1809–1812). After the bloody battle at *Rustchuck*, the Russians retired across the Danube, and the Turkish army which pursued them was captured (1811).

1812, May 28. Peace of Bucharest: the Pruth was made the boundary between Russia and Turkey.

Louisa, daughter of Francis I. of Austria. Abdication and flight (July) of Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland, who had refused to ruin his country by joining the continental system. Annexation of Holland, as the "alluvial deposit of French rivers," to the French empire. Annexation of the canton of Wallis, and soon after of Oldenburg, a large part of the kingdom of Westphalia, the grand duchy of Berg, East Friesland, the Hanseatic cities, so that the French empire, which now comprised 130 departments, extended on the east as far as the Trave.

In Spain strenuous exertions against Napoleon; French, Italian, and Polish troops, along with those of the confederacy of the Rhine, overran the peninsula. Conquest of Andalusia by Victor and Mortier. Unsuccessful siege of Cadiz, whither the Central Junto had fled from Seville. A special session of the Cortes called at Cadiz assumed the sovereignty and drew up a constitution (completed 1812).

In Portugal struggle between Wellington and Massena. Siege and capture of Ciudad Rodrigo by the latter (July 10, 1810). Retreat of Wellington to the lines of Torres Vedras (Oct. 9). Winter quarters. 1811, March; masterly retreat of Massena. Siege of Almeida and Badajoz by the English. Defeat and retreat of Massena from Portugal. Soult, hastening to the relief of Badajoz, was defeated in the bloody

1811, May 16. Battle of Albuera. The English returned to Portugal. 1812, capture of Ciudad Rodrigo (Jan. 19) and Badajoz (April 6).

1812, July 22. Battle of Salamanca; victory of Wellington. Capture of Madrid. Loss of southern Spain to the French.

1811, March. Birth of a son to Napoleon, who received the pomp-

ous title of king of Rome.

Napoleon I. at the summit of his power. In the naval warfare and in the colonies France, like Holland, had met nothing but losses. Cayenne, Martinique, Senegal, St. Domingo, were lost in 1809. Guadeloupe, Isle Bourbon, and Isle de France in 1810; Java (with Batavia) 1811.

1812-1814. War between England and the United States of North America in consequence of commercial dissensions concluded by the treaty of Ghent, Dec. 24, 1814 (p. 551).

1812. (Sixth) War with Russia.

Cause: Napoleon's claim to rule the continent of Europe. The refusal of Russia to carry out strictly the absurd continental system, which Napoleon himself evaded by salable licenses, and which had ruined Russian commerce, roused the anger of the tyrant. The addition of west Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw by the peace of Vienna, had caused Alexander anxiety lest the restoration of Poland should be contemplated; the deposition of the duke of Oldenburg,

his near relative, offended him deeply.

Alliance of Napoleon with Austria, which furnished 30,000 men for the Russian expedition, and Prussia, from which he obtained 20,000 men. Denmark, favored by its position, succeeded in maintaining neutrality during the war with Russia. Sweden (Bernadotte), which had been forced by the violent reproaches of Napoleon concerning disregard of the continental system to declare war upon England (1810), seized the opportunity of the Russian war, to shake off her dependence upon France, and open for herself the prospect of obtaining Norway, as a recompense for Finland. Occupation of Swedish Pommerania and Rügen by the French, Jan. 1812. Treaty of St. Petersburg between Sweden and Russia, April: Russia promised Sweden the annexation of Norway, with indemnification for Denmark; Sweden promised Russia to make a diversion in northern Germany in union with a Russian auxiliary force.

England concluded peace with Russia and Sweden at Orebro

(June).

The French army of invasion included Frenchmen, Italians, Swiss, Dutch, Poles, and contingents from all the German princes of the confederacy of the Rhine, in fact, the smaller part only of the army was French. The total number, according to Thiers, was 420,000 men, but reinforcements afterwards swelled it to 553,000. The Austrians, under Schwarzenberg, on the right wing, and Prussians, under York, on the left wing, formed separate armies, the latter being under the command of Macdonald.

1812, June. Passage of the Niemen by the great army; occupation of Wilna. Poland was not restored. The Russians under Barclay de Tolly retreated. The main army reached Smolensk without a battle, though suffering from skirmishes and lack of provisions, while the Prussians besieged Riga, and the Austrians penetrated Volky-

nia. Storm and destruction of Smolensk (Aug. 17, 18). The Russian general Kutusoff, obtaining the command in chief, fought the bloody

1812, Sept. 7. Battle at Borodino and Moshaisk on the *Moskowa*, in which both parties suffered enormous losses (French, 32,000; Russian, 47,000), but the Russians were forced to withdraw. Retreat in admirable order through

Sept. 14. Moscow. Occupation of the city, which the inhabitants had abandoned, by the French, whose main army had already shrunk to 95,000 men.¹ Napoleon in the Kremlin.

Sept. 16-19. Burning of Moscow (Rostopschin).

Sack of the city in the midst of ashes and ruins. Napoleon proffered a truce, which the Russians rejected by an answer whose delivery was purposely delayed. After remaining five weeks in Moscow, Napoleon commenced his

Oct. 19. Retreat from Moscow,

at first in a southwesterly direction, afterwards towards Smelensk. The march was disturbed by the Russian main army under Kutusoff, and by countless swarms of Cossacks. Desperate contest of separate corps of the army at Jaroslavez, Oct. 24, and Vjazma, Nov. 3.

- Nov. 6. Commencement of the cold weather. Terrible suffering from hunger and frost. Continuous engagements, especially at Krasnoy (Ney, "the bravest of the brave"), and Borissoff.
- Nov. 26-28. Terrible passage of the Berezina.

Ney and Oudinot, with 8,500 men, forced a passage against 25,000. From this point, the disorganization of the remaining fragments of the army was complete, and the retreat became a wild flight. Dec. 3, Bulletin (No. 29), of Malodeczno. Napoleon left the army and hastened to Paris where he arrived Dec. 18. The army continued its retreat pursued by the Russians until Dec. 13, when the remaining troops (100,000), crossed the Niemen. The Russians made 100,000 prisoners according to their reports.

In any case this expedition cost the lives of at least 300,000 able-bodied young men on the side of the French and their

allies.

- Dec. 30. York concluded a treaty of neutrality with the Russian general Diebitch, in the mill of Poscherun near Tauroggen.
- 1813 and 1814. The Great War of Liberation of the allies against Napoleon.
- 1813, Feb. 3. Appeal of Frederic William III. issued from Breslau, directing the formation of volunteer corps, whereupon all the young men capable of service flew to arms.
- Feb. 28. Alliance of Kalish

between Russia and Prussia:

1. Offensive and defensive alliance, enumeration of the auxil-

1 Cf. V. Toll, Denkwürdigkeiten.

- iary armies to be furnished by either side. 2. Restoration of the Prussian monarchy according to old political relations. 3. Invitation extended to Austria and England to join the alliance.
- 1813, March 3. Treaty between England and Sweden: England paid one million rix dollars in subsidies and promised not to oppose the union of Norway with Sweden. Sweden furnished the allies an army of 30,000 men under command of the crown prince Bernadotte (the inactive and suspicious conduct of this general afterwards entirely disabled the northern army).
- March 17. Appeal of Frederic William III. "To my people," and "to my army." Establishment of the Landwehr and the Landsturm. Iron Cross.
- March. Outbreak in Hamburg. Tettenborn occupied the city. The dukes of Mecklenburg withdrew from the confederacy of the Rhine.
- Great preparations on both sides. The Elbe was the boundary between the combatants; Danzig, Stettin, Küstrin, Glogau, Modlin, and Zamosc, being, however, in the hands of the French.
- March 27. Occupation of *Dresden* by *Russians* and *Prussians* under Wittgenstein and Blücher, after the withdrawal of marshal Davout. Flight of the king of Saxony.

The French army and the contingents of the confederacy of the

Rhine concentrated in Franconia, Thuringia, and on the Elbe.

Napoleon, after the end of April, was at the head of 180,000 men in Germany. He was unexpectedly attacked by the armies of the allies, numbering 85,000 men, and forced to fight the

May 2. Battle of Gross-Görschen or Lützen.

Victory remained with the French, in spite of their losses. The allies withdrew through *Dresden* to *Lusatia*. *Scharnhorst*, severely wounded, died in Prague.

Napoleon in Dresden, in close alliance with the king of Saxony,

who had returned from Prague.

1813, May 18. Landing of the crown prince Bernadotte with Swedish troops, in Pommerania.

May 20 and 21. Battles of Bautzen and Wurschen.

Napoleon attacked the allies at Bautzen, forced them to retreat across the Spree, and completed the victory at Wurschen, with great loss to himself. Duroc †. The allies retreated to Silesia.

May 30. Hamburg occupied by Davout, after the withdrawal of the Russians, and terribly maltreated:

The combatants, exhausted, waited for reinforcements and strove to secure the alliance of Austria.

June 4-July 26. Armistice of Poischwizt, afterwards prolonged until Aug. 10 (16).

June 15. England concluded a subsidy treaty with Prussia and Russia at Reichenbach.

July 5 (28)-Aug. 11. Congress at Prague. Austria played the part of mediator. After futile negotiations (Metternich, Cau-

laincourt, William von Humboldt), the congress was dissolved and

- 1813, Aug. 12. Austria declared war upon France.

 The allies, supported by English subsidies, placed three main armies in the field:
 - 1. The great Bohemian army under Schwarzenberg (Kleist, Wittgenstein), with which were the three monarchs, Alexander, Francis, Frederic William.
 - 2. The Silesian army under Blücher (York, Sacken, Langeron).

3. The Northern army under the crown prince of Sweden, Bernadotte (Bülow, Tauenzien, Winzingerode).

Napoleon opened hostilities with an attack upon Blücher who retired behind the Katzbach. Meanwhile Schwarzenberg advanced against Dresden from Bohemia. Napoleon hastened thither, leaving Macdonald to oppose Blücher. Before an action occurred at either of these points, Oudinot and Reynier, whose attack upon Berlin was to be supported by Davout from Hamburg, were defeated by Bülow in the

Aug. 23. Battle of Grosbeeren,

while the crown prince of Saxony looked on inactive.

This victory saved Berlin from capture and sack. Directly afterwards Macdonald's army was defeated in the

Aug. 26. Battle of the Katzbach near Wahlstatt

by Blücher, a part being captured. Blücher created Prince of Wahlstatt.

Meanwhile the attack of the Bohemian army upon Dresden failed. Napoleon won his last great victory on German soil in the

Aug. 26 and 27, Battle of Dresden.

Moreau, on the side of the allies, was severely wounded by a cannon-ball. † Sept. 2.

Aug. 27. Victorious engagement at Hagelberg. (Landwehr of the electoral mark.) Vandamme, in the attempt to intercept the retreat of the Bohemian army, was defeated in the

Aug. 30. Battle at Kulm and Nollendorf

near Teplitz, by Ostermann and Kleist, and captured with 10,000 men.

Ney, who was to occupy Berlin, was defeated in the

Sept. 6. Battle of Dennewitz

by Bülow and Tauenzein. Austria having already arranged the preliminaries of an alliance with Russia and Prussia, during the armistice, a formal

Sept. 9. Alliance was concluded at Teplitz:

1. Firm union and mutual guarantee for their respective territories. 2. Each party to assist the others with at least 60,000 men. 3. No separate peace or armistice to be concluded. Secret

articles provided for the restoration of the Austrian and Prussian monarchies to the condition of 1805.

- 1813, Sept. 17. Napoleon repulsed by Schwarzenberg at Nollendorf.
 York forced a passage across the Elbe for the army of Silesia by the
- Oct. 3. Battle of Wartenburg, against Bertrand. The northern army also crossed the Elbe.
- Oct. 8. Treaty of Ried between Austria and Bavaria, which withdrew from the confederacy of the Rhine and joined the alliance against Napoleon. In return the king of Bavaria was secured in all the possessions which he held at the date of the treaty.

As the three main armies of the allies were attempting to unite in Napoleon's rear, the latter left *Dresden* in order to escape being cut off from France, and concentrated his troops at *Leipzig*.

- 1813, Oct. 16, 18, 19. Battle of Leipzig. ("Battle of the Nations").
- Oct. 16. On the first day:
 - 1. Indecisive battle between Napoleon and the army of Bohemia under Schwarzenberg at Wachau (south of Leipzig).
 - 2. Victory of Blücher at Möckern, north of Leipzig, over Marmont.
- Oct. 17. On the next day the main armies desisted from fighting. Napoleon sent offers of peace to Francis I. which were rejected on account of the extravagance of his demands. Toward evening union of the four armies of the allies: the grand army, the northern army, with which the army of Silesia had already united by an extraordinary march of Blücher, and finally the Russian reserve (100,000) under Bennigsen. The armies of the allies, forming a large half circle, largely outnumbered the French. (300,000 men against 130,000).
- Oct. 18. On the third day general attack of the allies, ending, after nine hours' fighting, in a complete victory. (Struggle for Probstheide). In the evening the French army was driven back to the gates of Leipzig. The corps of Saxony and Wurtemberg went over to the allies.
- Oct. 19. Storm of Leipzig and capture of the king of Saxony. After suffering a loss of more than 30,000 men, the defeated army of Napoleon commenced the retreat. The destruction of the bridge over the *Elster* before the whole army had crossed caused the drowning of many troops in the Elster, among them prince *Poniatowski*, nephew of the last king of Poland.

On the retreat engagement on the *Unstrut* between Napoleon and *York's* advanced guard, and at **Hanau** (Oct. 30, 31) with an Austro-Bavarian army under *Wrede*. The French were victorious.

Immediate consequences of the battle of Leipzig: flight of king Jérôme from Cassel; end of the kingdom of Westphalia, and of the grand duchies of Frankfort and Berg. Restoration of the old rulers in Cassel, Brunswick, Hanover, Oldenburg. The central administra-

tive bureau for Germany under baron von Stein, which had been created at the beginning of the war for the government of those districts which should be occupied by the troops of the allies, found its sphere of action limited almost entirely to Saxony.

Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, and the remaining members of the confederacy of the Rhine joined the allies. The cities occupied by the French fell into the hands of the allies one after another. Dresden (Nov. 11), Stettin (Nov. 21), Lübeck (Dec. 5), Zamosc, Modlin, Torgau (Dec. 26), Danzig (Dec. 30), Wittenberg (Jan. 12, 1814, by Tauenzien), Kustrin (March 7). Glogau, Magdeburg, Hamburg (Davout), Erfürt, Würzburg, Wesel, Mainz, maintained themselves until the peace.

Uprising in Holland (Nov. 15), expulsion of the French officials. A part of the northern army under Bülow entered Holland, while the crown prince of Sweden, with the main body of the northern army separated completely from the allies, invaded Holstein, in a short

winter campaign forced Denmark to conclude the

1814, Jan. 14. Peace of Kiel: 1. Denmark renounced the possession of Norway in favor of Sweden, which guaranteed to the Norwegians the possession of their liberties and rights. 2. Sweden ceded to Denmark western Pommerania and Rügen. At the same time peace between Denmark and England, the latter restoring all conquests except Heligoland; afterwards peace with Russia and Prussia.

Meantime the French, after they had already (in 1812) lost the southern part of the country, and Madrid itself for a time, were driven almost entirely out of Spain in 1813.

After the French power had been weakened by the departure of Soult with a large number of troops for Germany (Feb. 1813), Wellington repulsed Soult's successor, Jourdan, and king Joseph, and defeated them in the

1813, June 21. Battle of Vittoria.

Joseph fied to France. Siege of Pampeluna by the Spaniards. Soult returning with reinforcements to the relief of Pampeluna was defeated in the Pyrenees (July 28, 29), and withdrew behind the Bidassoa. At the same time marshal Suchet was driven out of Valencia into Barcelona. After the conquest of Pampeluna (Oct. 31) by the Spaniards, Wellington crossed the Bidassoa, defeated Soult on French soil, and compelled him to retreat to Bayonne. Napoleon endeavored to secure peace with Spain by a treaty with the imprisoned king, Ferdinand (whom he liberated from his confinement at Valencay), and thus to protect France against invasion from the side of the Pyrenees, but the attempt was a failure. The Cortes did not ratify the treaty, on the ground that the king had not been a free agent, and that they were unwilling to conclude a peace which did not include the English.

1813. The allies on Nov. 8 laid before Napoleon a proposal which secured to France the Alps and Rhine for boundaries, but as Dec. 1. Napoleon did not earnestly entertain it, they adopted the resolution to prosecute the war vigorously and to pass the

Rhine. Napoleon obtained from the senate a new levy of 300,000 men; the corps législatif, in which words of blame were at last heard, was prorogued sine die.

Passage of the allies across the Rhine.

1813, Dec. 21-25. The main army under Schwarzenberg, Wrede, etc., crossed the upper Rhine and traversed Switzerland (Basle), whose treaty of neutrality with Napoleon was disregarded.

1814, Jan. 1. Blücher with the army of Silesia crossed the middle

Rhine, at Mannheim, Caub, and Coblentz.

The total strength of the allies on their entrance into French territory was not quite 200,000 men. The main army advanced through Burgundy; Blücher through Lorraine toward Champagne. To prevent their juncture, Napoleon attacked Blücher at Brienne, and drove Jan. 29. him back; Blücher, however, united with a part of the main army (crown prince of Würtemberg) and defeated the emperor in the

Feb. 1. Battle of La Rothière,

and drove him across the Aube. The impossibility of provisioning the united armies, led to their separation. The grand army was to advance upon Paris by way of the Seine, while the army of

Silesia followed the Marne toward the same goal.

No sooner did Napoleon hear of this separation than, with astonishing boldness, leaving a very small body of troops behind to engage the army under Schwarzenberg, he hurled himself suddenly upon the separate divisions of the army of Silesia, defeated them in four battles Feb. 10-15. at Champaubert (Sacken), Montmirail (York driven across the Marne), Château - Thierry, and Vauchamps, and

forced Blücher back to Etoges. Then, turning like a flash upon the

main army, he defeated it in the

Feb. 17. Engagement at Nangis (Wittgenstein and Wrede), and in the

Feb. 18. Engagement at Montereau (crown prince of Würtemberg).

Napoleon thus obliged the main army to retreat to *Troyes*, after which the two armies were for a short time again united on the *Aube*.

Meanwhile ambassadors of the allies had met the envoy of Na-

poleon, Caulaincourt, in a

Feb. 5-March 19. Congress at Châtillon (on the Seine), where Napoleon was offered the possession of France with the boundaries of 1792, but the negotiations came to naught by reason of his haughty and dubious conduct.

farch 1. Closer union between the allied powers at Chaumont.

The deposition of Napoleon resolved upon.

The two armies separated again. The main army under Schwarzenberg defeated Oudinot and Macdonald in the

Feb. 25. Battle of Bar-sur-Aube.

Blücher reached Meaux, was forced to retire across the Marne and Oise, and joined the army of the north under Bülow and Winzingerode. The united armies defeated Napoleon in the

1814, March 9, 10. Battle of Laon.

Napoleon now turned against the main army, which defeated him in the

March 20, 21. Battle of Arcis-sur-Aube.

Meanwhile, Wellington had been driving back Soult with equal success. Occupation of Bordeaux (March 12), where the royal banner of the Bourbons was first raised.

Napoleon formed the desperate plan of throwing himself in the rear of the allies in Lorraine, summoning the garrisons of the fortresses to his aid, and calling the entire population to arms. The allies, however, with equal boldness, advanced upon Paris, and defeated the marshals Marmont and Mortier in the

March 25. Battle of La Fere-Champenoise.

Marmont and Mortier threw themselves into the capital. The regent, Maria Louisa, fled to Blois. After a brave defense and after the

March 30. Storm of Montmartre

they capitulated under condition of free departure, and left Paris to its fate.

March 31. Entrance of the allies into Paris,

where the senate, through the influence of Talleyrand, declared that Napoleon and his family had forfeited the throne.

Napoleon, hastening to the relief of his capital, came a few hours too late. His marshals having refused to follow him in a foolhardy assault upon Paris, he abdicated the throne in favor of his son (April 6) at Fontainebleau, and when this reservation was rejected unconditionally (April 11) Napoleon made a futile attempt to poison himself.¹

He received from the allies the island of *Elba* as a sovereign principality, and an annual income of two million francs to be paid by France. His wife received the duchies of *Parma*, *Piacenza*, and *Guastella* with sovereign power; both retained the imperial title.

1814. Wellington defeated Soult in the

April 10. Battle of Toulouse.

May 4. Arrival of Napoleon at Elba.

Return of the Bourbons. Louis XVI.'s brother, the count of Provence, first appointed his younger brother, the count of Artois as viceregent (lieutenant du royaume), and then returned to France, as

1814–1824. Louis XVIII.

where he promulgated a constitution which was an imitation of the English constitution, but with many limitations. (Charte octroyée: chamber of peers and chamber of deputies without the initiative.) He concluded with the allies the

May 30. (First) Peace of Paris.

1. France retained, in the main, the boundaries of 1792, which embraced 3,280 square miles more than those of 1790: Avignon, the

1 According to Thiers, Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire, vol. xviii., the truth of this attempted suicide is very doubtful. Cf. V. Helfert, Nap. I. Fahrt von Fontainebleau nach Elba, 1874.

Venaissin, parts of Savoy, of the German empire, and of Belgium. 2. France recognized the independence of the States of the Netherlands, according to their future enlargement, as well as of all German and Italian states and of Switzerland. 3. England restored the French colonies excepting Tobago, Sta. Lucia, and Isle de France. England retained Malta. 4. The allies remitted all sums which they might have claimed for supplies, advances, etc. 5. France promised England to abolish the slave trade.

After the peace of Paris Pius VII. returned to Rome, the king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel, to Turin, the king of Spain, Ferdinand VII., to Madrid. In Spain the rejection of the ultra-liberal constitution proposed by the cortes of 1812, was followed by the immediate outbreak of a cruel contest of arbitrary power against the liberal party.

Visit of Alexander and Frederic William III. in London (June 7-22, 1814), accompanied by their victorious general (Blücher); enthusiastic reception by the English nation. For the purpose of restoring and regulating the European relations, and particularly those of Germany, after the overthrow of the military supremacy of the French empire, the

1814, Sept.-1815, June, Congress of Vienna

was assembled. The emperors of Austria and Russia, the kings of Prussia, Denmark, Bavaria, and Würtemberg, and a great number of German princes were present in person.

Chief negotiators: Austria, Metternich; Prussia, Hardenberg and W. v. Humboldt; Russia, Nesselrode and Rasumoffsky; Great Britain, Wellington and Castlereagh; France, Talleyrand and Dalberg.

(Baron vom Stein, prince of Ligne.)

The five powers, which had concluded the peace of Paris, and which, to avoid quarrels about rank, were henceforward named in the order of the French alphabet, Autriche, France, Grande-Bretagne, Prusse, Russie, formed a closer union at the congress of Vienna (hence afterwards called the Pentarchy of the Great Powers). For special cases this union was joined by Spain, Portugal, Sweden. These eight powers, after long negotiations and after the disputes over the Saxon and the Polish questions had for a moment threatened to lead to war (Russia and Prussia against Austria, France, and England), and after Napoleon's return from Elba (p. 483), signed the

Act of the Congress of Vienna.

Principal articles:

1. Restoration of the Austrian and Prussian monarchies: a. Austria received besides her ancient domain of Milan, Venice, which had been conferred upon her by the treaty of Campo Formio (these were now called the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom), the Illyrian provinces (the kingdoms of Illyria and Dalmatia), Salzburg, Tyrol (from Bavaria), and Gallizia. b. Prussia received a part of the grand duchy of Warsaw (Posen) with Danzig; Swedish hither Pommerania with Rügen in return for Lauenburg, which was ceded to Denmark; its old possessions in Westphalia, somewhat enlarged, as well as Neu-

châtel and the grand duchy of the lower Rhine, and the greater part of Saxony as an indemnification for the loss of some former possessions, as Ansbach and Baireuth ceded to Bavaria, East Friesland to Hanover, the Polish possessions to Russia.

2. Formation of a kingdom of the Netherlands, comprising the former republic of Holland and Austrian Belgium, under the

former hereditary statthalter as King William I.

3. Creation of a German confederacy to take the place of the old empire, comprising 39 (at its dissolution in 1866 only 34) sovereign states, including the four free cities; all other princes who were formerly sovereign were mediatized.

Act of confederation signed June 8, 1815, supplemented by

the final act of Vienna, May 15, 1820.

4. Russia received the greater part of the grand duchy of Warsaw as the kingdom of Poland. Cracow became a free state under the protection of Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

5. England retained Malta, Heligoland, a portion of the French and Dutch colonies, and the protectorate over the Republic of the Seven Ionian Islands (the latter by treaty of 1815, Nov. 5, which was made an integral part of the peace of Vienna. See p. 482. These islands were given to Greece by the treaties of Nov. 14, 1863–Nov. 29, 1864. See p. 505).

6. Sweden retained Norway, which had been ceded to her at the peace of Kiel (p. 479), with a constitution of its own; Den-

mark was indemnified with Lauenburg.

7. The nineteen cantons of Switzerland were increased to twentytwo by the accession of Geneva, Wallis, and Neuchâtel (at once

canton and a principality).

8. Restoration of the old dynasties in Spain, in Sardinia, which received Genoa, in Tuscany, Modena, the Papal States. The Bourbons were not reinstated in Naples until 1815, as Murat had secured possession of that state for the present by his desertion of Napoleon.

News of the discontent in France with the government of the Bourbons, and of the discord in the bosom of the congress of Vienna, as well as the invitations of his adherents, encouraged the deposed em-

peror to return to France.

1815. Landing of Napoleon at Cannes

- March 1. with 1,500 men. Forced march upon *Paris*. All troops sent against him, even *Ney* with his corps, went over to him.
- March 13. Proclamation of the ban against Napoleon by the monarchs of Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, France, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden.
 King Louis XVIII. fled to Ghent.
- March 20. Napoleon entered Paris. The Hundred Days, March 20 to June 29, 1815.

Austria, Great Britain, Prussia and Russia, concluded a new

March 25. Alliance at Vienna against Napoleon, whereby each power engaged to furnish an army of 180,000 men. All Eu-

ropean nations were invited to join the alliance. One after another all the states joined it except Sweden, which was occupied in crushing with military power the resistance of Norway to the personal union. The sum of the contingents furnished against Napoleon amounted to over a million men.

May. Napoleon found himself obliged to make some apparent concessions to the liberal party in France. Champ de Mai: Acte additionel. In Belgium concentration of a Prussian army under Blücher and an English-German under Wellington, against Napoleon.

Murat, who had declared for Napoleon, defeated by the Austrians at Tolentino (May 3). Naples captured May 22. Murat fled to France. Reinstallation of Ferdinand as king of Naples.

June 14. Napoleon crossed the boundary of Belgium. Engagement at Charleroi; the advance guard of the Prussians under Ziethen forced back. June 15, Napoleon defeated Blücher in the

June 16. Battle of Ligny,

after a brave resistance (Blücher in personal danger), and drove him back. Blücher marched upon Wavre. Ney defeated by the prince of Orange in the

June 16. Battle of Quatre-Bras.

The duke of Brunswick fell. Meantime concentration of the army of Wellington, consisting of British, Hanoverians, Dutch, and troops from Brunswick and Nassau. Upon this force Napoleon hurled himself with superior numbers.

1815, June 18. Battle of Waterloo and Belle Alliance, called by Napoleon the battle of *Mont St. Jean*.

Napoleon thought he had insured the prevention of the juncture of the Prussians under Blücher with the English under Wellington, by directing Grouchy to engage the former. By afternoon Wellington's army, though still unyielding, had suffered so heavily that the day was only saved by the arrival of the Prussians under Blücher. Complete defeat of the French, whose army, pursued by Gneisenau, was entirely scattered. Meanwhile Grouchy, on whose help Napoleon had relied, was engaged at Wavre against Thieleman, whose corps he by some unexplained error took for the whole Prussian army.¹

June 22. Abdication of Napoleon in favor of his son.

July 1. Arrival of the allies before Paris.

July 7. Second capture of Paris.

Entrance of Blücher and Wellington. Return of Louis XVIII. Arrival of the two emperors, and of the king of Prussia.

Meantime Napoleon fled to Rochefort, where, after futile attempts to escape to America, he surrendered himself to the British admiral Hotham on the ship-of-the-line Bellerophon, who conveyed him to England. Thence, by a unanimous resolve of the allies, he was transported as prisoner of war to St. Helena, where he arrived in October († May 5, 1821).

¹ Thiers, Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire, xx.; Ropes, Who Lost Weterloo? — Atlantic Monthly, June, 1881.

Sept. 26. Foundation of the Holy Alliance upon the suggestion of Alexander, comprising at first Russia, Austria, Prussia, theoretically an intimate union on a basis of morality and religion, but practically soon degenerating into an alliance for the protection of absolute monarchy.

Ney made his escape, but was captured, condemned, and executed on Dec. 7, 1815. Murat made a reckless attempt to recover his throne by landing in Calabria; he was captured, court-martialed, and shot Oct. 13, 1815.

Oct. 13, 1013.

Nov. 20. Second Peace of Paris.

1. France surrendered the four fortresses Philippeville, Marienburg (also Bouillon to the kingdom of the Netherlands), Saarlouis (and Saarbrucken to Prussia), Landau, which became a fortress of the German confederation, with the surrounding region as far as the Lauter (to Bavaria). France ceded to Bardinia that part of Savoy which she had retained in the first peace of Paris. She was therefore brought back, generally speaking, to the boundaries of 1790, instead of to those of 1792, which she had retained in the first peace.

2. Demolition of Hüningens, a fortress opposite Basle.

3. Seventeen fortresses on the north and east borders of France were to be garrisoned for five years at the utmost, by troops of the allies at the expense of France.

4. France paid 700 million francs for the expenses of war. Besides this the art treasures which the French had carried away from various cities, partly by treaties, and which had been left in Paris under the first peace, were now reclaimed.

The desire of German patriots that at least a portion of the ancient apparages of the old empire, *Lorraine*, *Alsace*, and *Strasburg*, should be taken from France, which would thus be deprived of a point of attack against Germany, was not gratified.

FOURTH PERIOD.

FROM THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA TO THE PRESENT DAY. 1815-x.

§ 1. INVENTIONS.

The universal adoption and application of four inventions which had been made at an earlier period, and in comparison with whose influence upon the transformation of the world that of all political events, wars, treaties, revolutions, almost disappear, lends the modern world its peculiar character. [A century of material, intellectual, social development of the people follows a century of diplomatic intrigue and misgovernment. (Compare with these inventions those of the fifteenth century, p. 279.)]

1. The first attempts to utilize steam for the production of motion were made in the seventeenth century. Nothing, however, is cer-

tainly known about either the exact date or place of the invention, or the person of the true discoverer. The French ascribe the invention to Denis Papin, of Blois (1647-1714), the English to the Marquis of Worcester (1663) and Captain Savery (1698). At all events the first steam engine which deserves the name seems to have been set up in England, and to have been used in mining. This was done by Newcomen, in Devonshire (1705). The man who did the most to improve the steam engine, and whose inventions first made it possible to use these machines in the most various industries, was James

Watt (1736–1819), of Greenock, in Scotland.

2. The priority of the idea of applying steam to navigation is disputed between the French, English, and Americans. The French ascribe the invention to the above-named Papin. In 1774 the count of Auxiron, and in 1775 Périer, are said to have sailed the first little steamboat upon the Seine. The experiment was repeated by the marquis of Jouffroy in 1775 on the Doubs, and in 1780 on the Saône at Lyons with a vessel of larger dimensions. In England the invention is ascribed to the marquis of Worcester; it would seem, however, that the first steamboat in Great Britain was built in 1786 by Symington at Edinburgh. To America, however, where experiments with small steamboats had been made upon the Delaware in 1783, 1785, belongs the honor of establishing the first regular steamboat service. This was instituted in 1807 by Fulton, who had already made an experiment with a steamship on the Seine in the presence of the first consul, Napoleon, and had in vain offered to apply steam to the French ships of war (1803).

3. Railroads were without doubt an English invention. In the second half of the seventeenth century wooden railroads were used in the mines at Newcastle on the Tyne, in imitation, it is claimed, of a similar arrangement in the Harz mines. In 1716 the rails were covered with sheet iron, and in 1767 the wood was replaced by cast iron. For a long time the roads were used only for securing an easier draught for horses. The first application of steam to railroads was made in 1806 by the engineer Trevithick. Gradual improvement in the mechanical construction of the engines. George Stephenson in 1814 invented the locomotive and in 1829 an improved locomotive, which in 1830 ran upon the first great railroad for passenger traffic between Liverpool and Manchester. The first road of this kind was constructed in 1825 between Stockton and Darlington. First railroad in Germany, Fürth to Nuremberg (1835), at first a horse railroad; the first larger line worked by locomotives was constructed between Leipsic and Dresden (1837). First railroad in the United States, 1827, at Quincy, Mass.; cars drawn by horses. First railroad traversed by a locomotive, the Hudson and Mohawk road, 1832. After England and North America were covered with an iron net-work, Germany, and much later France, began the construction of railroads upon a large scale. [Financial disturbances caused (especially in England) by the withdrawal of capital from other industries to be sunk in construction of railroads, and by stock speculation.]

4. The first electric telegraph was invented in 1809 by Sömmering,

a German, in Munich. The invention was offered to Napoleon I., who dismissed it as a "German notion." After the Dane, Orsted, had discovered electro-magnetism in 1819, the Frenchmen Ampère and Ritschie conceived the idea of applying the new discovery to the telegraph. The first electro-magnetic telegraph which was actually constructed and used was set up in Göttingen by Gauss and Weber in 1833. Somewhat later an electro-magnetic telegraph was invented in Russia by a German, Schilling. Schilling's invention was carried to England by Cooke, an Englishman. There it was improved by Wheatstone, and this perfected telegraph was first practically worked in London, between Euston Square and Camden Town. After the invention had undergone many improvements, especially in Germany and America (Morse, 1844), Great Britain, the continent of Europe, and North America were covered with telegraph wires. The first submarine telegraph was laid in 1850 between England and France (Dover to Cape Gris-nez). Submarine cables were then laid from England to Ireland and Belgium (1851, 1853), and in many other locations. The gigantic undertaking of connecting Europe and America by a cable failed in 1857. A second attempt in 1858 was crowned with success, but only for a time. In 1866 the undertaking was again renewed and brought to a successful close. (Valencia in Ireland to Newfoundland, 1,650 English miles.) Since that time, laying of a second, third, fourth, and fifth cable.

§ 2. CONTINENTAL EUROPE.¹

1817. Jubilee festival for the 300th anniversary of the Reformation. Festival of the Wartburg. Burning of a number of absolutist writings (Ancillon, Schmalz, Haller, etc.).

1818. Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle. The great powers resolved, at the request of the French minister, the duke of Richelieu,

to withdraw the army of occupation from France.

1819. "Demagogic machinations." Murder of the German writer and Russian counselor, Kotzebue (Mar. 23), by the fanatic Sand in Mannheim. Secret organization among German students (Burschenschaft). Reaction in Prussia. W. v. Humboldt, Beyme, Boyen, withdrew from the service of the state.

Aug. Congress of ministers at Carlsbad controlled by Metternich. Censorship of the press. Supervision of the universities resolved upon. The congress continued its sittings at Vienna,

where the

1820, May. Final Act of Vienna was signed.

In Spain rising of the liberals on behalf of the suspended constitution of 1812, which was restored.

Oct. Congress at Troppau,

1821. Congress at Laybach, \(\)
assembled to consult about the revolutionary movements in Naples and Piedmont.

1821. Victorious campaign of the Austrians against the Liberals in

¹ For France see p. 526.

- Naples (Pepe, Caracosa) and Sardinia (Santa Rosa, battle of Novara). In both countries absolutism in its severest form was restored.
- 1822. Congress of Verona on account of the Spanish and Grecian disturbances.
- 1823. French intervention in Spain under the lead of the duke of Angoulême. The French entered Madrid, forced Cadiz to capitulate, and liberated king Ferdinand VII., who had been detained a prisoner there. Cruel reaction, numerous executions (Riego).
- 1810-1825. Conversion of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in Central America and South America into independent states.

Colombia, a republic since 1819 (Bolivar dictator), was divided, in 1830, into three republics: New Granada (now Colombia in the narrower sense), Venezuela, Ecuador. Peru a free state in 1821; La Plata, too, Uruguay, Chili, and southern Peru, under the name of Bolivia, became independent. In the Jesuit state, Paraguay, Dr. (Joseph Gaspard Roderic de) Francia (and afterwards Lopez) long governed with dictatorial power. Mexico freed from Spanish rule 1821 by Iturbide, who became emperor in 1822, but was obliged to abdicate and leave the country. Mexico a republic 1823; Iturbide returned, but was executed 1824.

Brazil an independent empire since 1822.

1820-1834. Revolutions and civil wars in Portugal. Don Miguel, the younger son of king John VI. († 1826), after a long civil war and unheard-of barbarities, was conquered by his elder brother, Don Pedro (since 1822 emperor of Brazil). Don Pedro († 1834) delegated the government of Portugal in 1826 to his daughter, Donna Maria; in 1831 he delegated the crown of Brazil to his son, Pedro II.

1821-1829. War of Grecian Independence.

Secret societies (hetaries). Prince Alexander Ypsilanti, at the head of a Grecian revolt in Moldavia and Wallachia (March-June, 1821), was defeated and fled to Austria, where he was detained a prisoner in Munkatsch for six years. Uprising in Morea (Mainots, April, 1821). Turkish attacks upon the Christians in Constantinople, Adrianople, etc.; terrible barbarities in Chios, which had revolted; over 20,000 Greeks murdered. Canaris burned a part of the Turkish fleet and put 3,000 Turks to death (1822). Lord Byron († Apr. 24, 1824), Eynard from Geneva. William Müller the German poet. German Philohellenists. [Philo-hellenists in England and America (Dr. Howe)]. Brave defense of Missolonghi (1825, 1826).

1824-1830. Charles X., king of France (p. 527).

1825-1855. Nicholas I., emperor of Russia, his elder brother Constantine having renounced the crown.

1825-1827. Ibrahim Pasha, Khedive of Egypt, ravaged Morea. England, Russia, and France interfered in behalf of the Greeks, who were hard pressed and at variance among themselves.

1826. Massacre of the Janizaries in Constantinople by Sultan Mah-

mud II., after a mutiny. The troop was entirely abolished.

1827. Battle of Navarino. The Turkish fleet was destroyed by Oct. 20. the English, French, and Russian fleets ("untoward event"), and Ibrahim was compelled to retreat from Morea.

1828–1829. Russo-Turkish War.

The Russian general, Diebitch, crossed the Balkans (whence his surname, Sabalkanski), and took Adrianople. In Asia Kars and Erzeroum were captured by Paskevitch, who had captured Erivan in 1827 in a war with Persia, and thereby gained the name of Erivanski. Peace of Adrianople. **1829.**

Russia restored almost all her conquests to Turkey, the latter power recognizing, in advance, the resolves of the London Conference

which had announced in 1830 the independence of Greece.

Provisional administration of the count Capo d'Istria as president, who in 1831 was murdered in Napoli di Romania (Nauplia), the seat of government. The guardian powers, England, France, Russia, raised to the Grecian throne the Bavarian prince,

Otto I., † 1867. **1832–1862.**

Capture of Algiers by the French (p. 527).

1830, July 27-29. July Revolution at Paris.

Abdication of Charles X.; accession of

1830–1848. Louis Philippe I.

For the details see p. 529. This revolution was followed by liberal uprisings throughout Europe.

1830-1837. William IV. (heretofore duke of Clarence) king of England. Whig ministry.

1830. Revolution in Belgium. Cause:

The kingdom of the *Netherlands*, created by the congress of Vienna, had been formed by the enforced union of two utterly different elements, the protestant commercial state of Holland, which was of like nationality with its sovereign, and the catholic manufacturing country of Belgium, which was divided between the Flemish and Walloon nationalities, but was pervaded by French culture. The success of the July revolution in Paris inflamed the long smouldering dissatisfaction in Brussels.

1830, Aug. 25. Outbreak in Brussels after a performance of the "Mutes of Portici." The mediation of prince William of Orange, the eldest son of king William I., failed of success. Prince Frederic, the king's second son, who had occupied a part of Brussels with a division of the army, was expelled from the city during the night of Sept. 26-27. On

Nov. 18, Declaration of Independence passed by the Belgian congress.

Provisional government.

The London Conference between the great powers procured a cessation of hostilities between Holland and Belgium and recognized the new state (Jan., 1831), which in February adopted a liberal monarchical constitution. After Louis Philippe had declined the honor for his second son, the duke of Nemours, upon whom the first choice fell,

1831-1865. Leopold I., of Saxe-Coburg, was elected king of the Belgians. [A man of ability and excellent disposition, he approved himself an admirable constitutional monarch.] The war with Holland lasted until 1833. Peace was established in 1839.

Results of the July Revolution: Revolutionary movements in Germany (in Saxony and Hesse-Cassel, alteration of the constitutions). In Brunswick duke Charles († 1873) was expelled; duke William taking his place, in accordance with a decree of the diet of the confederacy. Democratic transformation in many of the Swiss cantons.

1830-1832. Revolution in Poland.

1830, Nov. 29. Revolt in Warsaw. The attempted assassination of the grand duke Constantine foiled. Provisional government: Lubecki (pron. Lubetski), Czartoryski (pron. Tshar—), Chlopicki (Klopitzki), regarded with suspicion by the democrats (Lelewel). General Chlopicki dictator until Jan., 1831, then prince Radzivil commander-in-chief. The emperor Nicholas deposed by the diet Jan., 1831. Prince Czartoryski president. The Russians advanced under Diebitch. Bloody engagement at Grochow (Feb. 19-25, 1831), where the Poles with 45,000 men offered long and victorious resistance to the superior force of the Russians (70,000 men with more than twice as many cannon as the Poles possessed), but were at last forced back upon Prague. Skrzynecki commander-in-chief; defeat of the Russians at Wawar and Dembe Wielski; the insurrection spread through Lithuania and Podolia. Diebitch defeated the Poles in the bloody

1831, May 26. Battle of Ostrolenka. Diebitch † June 10. Want of harmony among the Poles. Massacres by the Polish democrats in Warsaw. Czartoryski escaped and was replaced by the inefficient Krukowiecki. The new Russian general Paskevitch crossed the Vistula, captured Warsaw (Sept. 6 and 7, 1831). The Polish insurrection suppressed. The Organic Statute of Feb. 26, 1832, deprived Poland of its constitution and reduced it to a province of the Russian empire, although with a separate administration.

1831. Uprisings in *Modena*, *Parma*, and *Romagna*, quickly suppressed with the assistance of the Austrians.

1833-1840. After the death of Ferdinand VII., civil war in Spain. Led by Espartero, the constitutional party, which supported the claims of Isabella II., the minor daughter of the king, and her mother Maria Christina, after a bloody contest, defeated the absolutist party (Don Carlos, brother of the king, † 1855 in exile; leaders of the Carlists: Zumalacarregui, † 1835, Cabrera, Gomez). Espartero overthrown in 1843. Banishment of the queen dowager, Christina.

1833. The Frankfort uprising, wherein two watches were overpowered for a few hours, caused a vigorous reactionary
movement throughout Germany. Frankfort received an AustroPrussian garrison. Establishment of commissions for political investigations, arrests and condemnations. Meeting of the sovereigns of

Austria, Prussia, and Russia at Münchengrätz; ministerial conference in Teplitz (1833) and Vienna (1834), by whose resolutions the rights of the estates in Germany were still further curtailed.

1833. Foundation of the German Customs Union (Zollverein) (Maassen, Prussian minister of finance), which had been zeal-ously advocated by Prussia since 1818. In 1830 the union already included a population of 25,000,000 and a territory of 80,600 square miles. After 1854 it embraced 98,000 square miles and 35,000,000 inhabitants.

1835-1848. Ferdinand I., emperor of Austria.

The chancellor of state, Metternich, was still the actual head of the government and the soul of the conservative reactionary policy throughout Europe. Censorship of the press. Strict system of passports. Police surveillance.

1837. Upon the death of William IV. of England, Hanover, where the salic law 1 regulated the descent of the throne, became

separated from England.

Partial repeal of the fundamental statute of 1833 by the king of Hanover, Ernst August, under the pretext that the constitution had been adopted without his consent, he being at the time heir to the throne. The true reason was probably that the constitution had made the domains public property and had established a civil list. Dismissal of seven professors at Göttingen (Jacob and William Grimm, Dahlmann, Gervinus, Ewald, Albrecht and Weber), for refusal to take the oath of homage.

1837 — X. Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland.

1837. Arrest of the archbishop of Cologne (Droste von Vischering), in consequence of a quarrel with the Prussian government about marriages between persons of different religious beliefs.

1840. Death of Frederic William III. of Prussia. His son and suc-June 7. cessor

1840-1861. Frederic William IV. (see p. 515).

Mehemed Ali, viceroy of Egypt, in a previous victorious war (1831-1833) with his over-lord the sultan, threatened Constantinople. He was, however, compelled by the European powers to make peace, and obliged to be content with the investiture of Syria as a fief from the sultan. The attempt of the Porte (1839) to deprive him of Syria, failed. Ibrahim, son of Mehemed Ali, defeated the Turks at Nisib on the Euphrates. Through treachery the Turkish fleet fell into the hands of the viceroy of Egypt. Relying on the support of France, Mehemed Ali demanded from the young sultan Abdul-Medjid (1839-1861) the hereditary investiture of all lands under his government. To oppose these demands, England (lord Palmerston), Austria, Prussia, and Russia, concluded in 1840 a treaty of alliance, to the exclusion of France, which for a moment threatened the peace of Europe. After the fall of the ministry of Thiers, however, and after

Guisot became president of the ministry in October, France submitted and deserted the viceroy of Egypt. The armed intervention of England and Austria in Syria forced the viceroy to take a lower tone, and he retained only the hereditary rule over Egypt under the over-lordship of the Porte.

1846. Death of Pope Gregory XVI. Attempted reforms of his suc-

cessor Pius IX. (Mastai-Ferretti).

1847. Convention of the united legislature (Landtag) in Prussia.

War of the Sonderbund (separate confederacy) in Switzerland, against seven Catholic cantons (Jesuits). General Dufour quickly overpowered Freiburg and Luzerne. Dissolution of the Sonderbund.

Transformation of the Swiss confederacy from a close alliance [Staatenbund] of sovereign cantons into a federal nation [Bundesstaat]. The former diet, in which Zürich, Berne, and Luzerne had in turn been the chief town, was now succeeded by a confederate council which sat in Berne and consisted of 1. a council of estates (representation of the governments of the separate cantons), 2. a national council (representation of the whole Swiss people according to the density of the population). A common system of coinage; centralized postal service and military organization.

1848, Feb. 24. February Revolution in Paris (p. 530).

1848-1851 (1852). France, for the second time, a republic.

In Switzerland, complete victory of the radicals. The canton of Neuchâtel threw off allegiance to its prince, the king of Prussia.

1848. Revolutionary movements in Germany, in consequence of the French revolution.

Feb. 27. Popular assembly at *Mannheim* under the lead of *Itzlein*, which demanded a German parliament, jury trials, free press, right of forming organizations, societies, etc.

March 11. The elector of Hesse obliged to agree to these demands. March 13-15. Outbreak in Vienna. Metternich driven from the city, which fell into the hands of the burgher-guard and the students.

March 18. Conflicts in the streets of Berlin. The troops, tired but not conquered, left the city by order of the king (March 19-20). Formation of a poorly disciplined burgher-guard. Liberal ministers frequently changed. Anarchy in the capital. Call of a constituent assembly at Berlin.

March 20. After disturbances had occurred in Munich as early as March 6, Louis I. († 1868) abdicated in favor of his son Maximilian II. Disturbances in Saxony, Hanover, Nassau,

Mecklenburg, etc.

March 31. Preliminary parliament in Frankfort opened under the presidency of *Mittermaier*. Four sessions. Resolve adopted to call a national German constituent assembly, for the purpose of making a constitution for the German empire.

April. A republican rising in Baden (Hecker, Struve), supported by the arrival of refugees (Herwegh) and foreign republicans quickly suppressed by the troops of the German confederation.

General Frederic von Gagern treacherously shot by the volun-

teers (April 20).

May 15. Second insurrection in Vienna, which compelled the convocation of a constituent diet. The emperor left Vienna and went to Innsbruck. The intended dissolution of the legion of students caused a

May 26. Third insurrection in Vienna, after which the troops left the city and a committee of public safety (citizens and students) controlled the city.

1848-1849. German National Assembly (Parliament)

May 18. in Frankfort (Church of St. Paul) for the purpose of "harmonizing" a constitution for the German empire with the

governments of the various states.

The national assembly elected archduke John of Austria (66 years old) administrator of the empire. He entered Frankfort June 11. The confederate council (Bundestag) dissolved itself. First imperial ministry (afterwards made more complete): Schmerling (Austria), foreign affairs, and interior; Peucker (Prussia), war; Heckscher (Hamburg), justice. It was soon evident, however, that the newly created central power had no real authority either as regarded foreign

countries or the separate states.

President of the national assembly, Heinrich von Gagern. Parties: right (Radowitz, Vincke, prince Lichnowsky), holding to the idea of an imperial constitution in harmony with the separate governments; left (Vogt, Ruge, Robert Blum), proclaiming the principle of the sovereignty of the people, and endeavoring to establish a republican confederation (Bundestaat) by revolutionary means; right centre (Gagern, Dahlmann, Gervinus, Arndt, Beseler, Bassermann, J. Grimm), which hoped to persuade the governments to recognize the establishment of a constitutional monarchy for Germany; left centre (Römer, Fallmerayer, Raveaux, etc.), which insisted upon the unconditional subordination of the separate states to a central monarchy, to be created on the basis of the sovereignty of the people; it recommended, however, that the views of the separate governments and such particular requirements of the states as were well founded should be respected.

1848. In Naples grant of a liberal constitution, followed by a reac-Feb. tion after the victory of the Swiss troops in the conflicts in the streets (May). War with Sicily, which was in revolt, but was subdued by Filangieri with great severity. After the murder of his minister, Rossi, Pius IX. fled to Gaëta (Nov.). Rule of the anarchists and republicans (Mazzini) in Rome. After a two months' siege Rome was captured by the French (July, 1849), and the papal authority was restored. The Pope did not return to Rome, however, until 1850. (French garrison in Rome, 1849-1866.)

1848. Slavonic congress in Prague,

June 2. called by the Czechs (Palacki), in order to unite the opposition of the Slavonic people of Austria against the growth of German culture and influence. In order that the representatives of the different Slavonic nationalities might understand one another,

the proceedings of this anti-German congress were held in German. June 12-17. Uprising of the Czechs in Prague suppressed by Windical mater

dischgrätz.

Oct. 31. Capture of Vienna by imperial troops (Windischgrätz, Jellachich). Robert Blum (member of the parliament of Frankfort), Messenhauser (commander of the city), and many others were shot.

Nov. 1. Commencement of the reaction in Prussia. Ministry Brandenburg - Manteuffel. General Wrangel entered Berlin without resistance (Nov. 10). Proclamation of a state of siege. The burgher-guard disarmed.

Nov. 27. Transference of the national assembly to Brandenburg.

As a quorum failed to meet there,

Dec. 5. Dissolution of the national assembly and imposition of a constitution with two chambers, the second elected by universal (manhood) and equal suffrage.

Dec. 10. Prince Louis Napoleon elected president of the French

Republic (p. 531).

1848-1849. War between Austria and Sardinia.

The Austrians, driven from Milan by a revolt (March, 1848), retired to Verona. An Italian attack at St. Lucia repulsed. Radetzki, reinforced by Nugent (engagements at Udine and Belluno), advanced again. The troops of Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, victorious at Goito (May), were completely defeated by Radetzki at

July 25. Custozza. Milan recaptured by the Austrians. Truce from Aug. 9, 1848, to March 20, 1849. Radetzki, by the victory of Mortara (March 21) and Novara (March 23), compelled the conclusion of peace. Charles Albert abdicated in favor of his son,

Victor Emmanuel, and retired to Portugal († July, 1849).

Capture of Brescia after terrible fighting in the streets. Cruelties exercised upon prisoners (Haynau). In Venice, after the withdrawal of the Austrian garrison (March, 1848), a provisional government in the name of the king of Sardinia was succeeded, after the defeat of the Italian army, by a republic (president Manin). Siege and capture of Venice by the Austrians (Aug. 1849). The whole of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom subjected anew to Austria.

1848-1849. Uprising of the Hungarians (Magyars).

The Hungarians demanded and received a separate ministry (April, 1848). Count Batthyanyi, president of the ministry; Kossuth (pr. Kóshūt), minister of finance. Diet in Pesth under the presidency of the archduke Stephen as palatine. The opposition of the Slavonic population and the appanages of the crown of Hungary (Croatia, Transylvania) to the supremacy of the Magyars, and their demand for political equality, were supported by the court of Vienna. Jellachich appointed Ban of Croatia. Kossuth procured from the diet a levy of national troops (Honveds), and the issue of Hungarian paper money. Jellachich invaded Hungary, but was defeated at Velencze. The archduke palatine Stephen resigned his office. Count Lamberg, created imperial governor of Hungary, murdered at Pesth (Sept.). The emperor dissolved the diet.

After the abdication of Ferdinand I. († 1875) his nephew mounted the throne as

1848 — x. Francis Joseph I., emperor of Austria.

The Hungarian diet refused to recognize the abdication of Ferdinand I. and the accession of Francis Joseph I. Prince Windischgrätz led an Austrian army into Hungary. Kossuth and the Magyar officials retired to Debreczin. Windischgrätz occupied Pesth (Jan., 1849). The Polish general Bem, to whom Kossuth had given a command, defeated the Austrians in a series of engagements. Other troops, under the Pole Dembinski and the Magyar princes Görgey and Klapka, were successful against the Austrians. Dembinski was appointed commander-in-chief of the Magyar forces, but was defeated at Kapolna (Feb. 26, 1849) and resigned his command. Meanwhile a bloody struggle was in progress in Transylvania: Bem, defeated by the Austrian general Puchner at Hermanstadt (Feb., 1849), after having received reinforcements, took the offensive against the Austrians and Russians, whom the former had called to their aid, with success; driving the Russians out of Transylvania. In the west, too, fortune smiled upon the Hungarian arms. Görgey relieved Komorn. Windischgrätz was driven back to Pesth, which his successor, Welden, was compelled to evacuate; an Austrian garrison remained in Ofen. In consequence of the

1849. Publication of the general constitution for Austria, March 4. which abolished the ancient Hungarian constitution, the

diet, upon Kossuth's motion, pronounced the deposition of the house of Hapsburg-Lorraine. Kossuth placed at the head of the Magyar government with the title of governor. Divisions and lack of decision among the Hungarians. Instead of marching upon Vienna they laid siege to Ofen, which Görgey captured May 21. Kossuth and the diet made a pompous entrance into Pesth. Meanwhile at a meeting of the emperors of Austria and Russia, Russian intervention was agreed upon, and a common plan of operations adopted for the

Last decisive struggle of the Hungarians. Bem defeated at Hermannstadt in Transylvania by the Russians (Lüders), who outnumbered him three to one. Dembinski forced to retire before the superior Russian force under Paskevitch. Görgey tried in vain to break through the main Austrian army under Haynau, was defeated at Zsigard and Komorn, went to the aid of Dembinski, defeated the Russians under Rüdiger at Waitzen, but was obliged to retire to the mountains upon the approach of Paskevitch, escaping the Russians only by a masterly retreat. Kossuth fled with the diet to Szegedin, whither Haynau marched. Dembinski, attacking him, was defeated at Szörek (Aug. 5), and at Temesvar (Aug. 9), where his army was almost entirely scattered. Confusion and discord among the Hungarians. Kossuth laid down the chief power; the dictatorship was conferred upon Görgey. Two days later Görgey concluded the

1849, Aug. 13. Capitulation of Vilagos,

in which about 25,000 men laid down their arms (120 cannon surrendered) before the Russian general Rüdiger. Most of the other

corps surrendered unconditionally; Klapka alone, who defended Komorn, made an honorable capitulation. Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, found refuge in Turkish territory. Haynau administered terrible punishment to the captured leaders of the insurrection. Numerous executions (count Batthyanyi hanged), imprisonments and confiscations. Abolition of the Hungarian constitution. Transylvania and Croatia separated from Hungary. Abolition of the general constitution of Austria, Dec. 31, 1851.

1848-1851. Three wars of Schleswig-Holstein against Denmark.

Cause: "Open letter" of the king, Christian VIII. (July 8, 1846), which arbitrarily decreed the continuance of the union of the duchies with Denmark, in spite of the different laws of inheritance in the two states. A revolutionary movement in Copenhagen (Casino party) compelled king Frederic VII. to pronounce the annexation of Schleswig to Denmark (1848). Hence insurrection in the duchies (March, 1848), and formation of a provisional government of the country (Beseler).

1848. First War. Prussian troops and those of the German con-April-Aug. federacy came to the assistance of the duchies, which

were obliged to form a new army. General Wrangel defeated the Danes at Schleswig (April 23) and advanced to Jütland. The losses to commerce in the Baltic by the Danish blockade and the influence of England and Russia produced the not very honorable truce of Malmö (26 Aug. 1842–26 March, 1849). Establishment of "common government" for the duchies.

Dissatisfaction with the truce throughout Germany. Angry debates in the national assembly at Frankfort; contest in the streets with the populace, who were excited by the democrats. Murder of

prince Lichnowsky and general von Auerswald (Sept.).

1849, March-July. Second War. Creation of a governorship (Beseler, Reventlow-Preetz) by the central government of Germany. At Eckernförde the ship of the line Christian VIII. was fired by cannonade and the frigate Gesion captured (April 5). Storm of the redoubts of Düppel by Bavarian and Saxon troops (April 13). The Prussian general Bonin, at the head of the Schleswig-Holstein army, defeated the Danes at Kolding (April 20). In consequence of the threatening attitude of England, France, and Russia, indifferent conduct of Prussia and other German troops in the war (general Prittwitz). Siege of Fredericia by the Schleswig-Holstein army, which, however, suffered a considerable loss through a successful sortie of the Danes. Truce of Berlin, between Prussia and Denmark (1849, July 10), whereby Schleswig was to be occupied by Swedish troops in the north, in the south by Prussian troops, and received a new administration. The truce was converted into a peace (in the name of the German confederation as well). Bonin and all Prussian officers were recalled from the Schleswig-Holstein army.

1850, Jan.-1851, July. Third War, conducted by Schleswig-Holsteiners alone without the aid of Germany. General Willisen, formerly in the Prussian service, assumed command of the army. He was defeated at Idstedt (July 24, 25). Schleswig occupied by the Danes. In the engagement at Missunde (Sept. 12) the Schleswig-Holstein troops were again defeated. In the storm of Friedrichstadt (Oct. 4) they were repulsed with great loss. The chief command was transferred from Willisen to general Horst. The German confederacy having been restored meanwhile (p. 498) enforced under Austrian influence the cessation of hostilities; Holstein was occupied by Austrian troops with the consent of Prussia, and delivered to the Danes upon the vague promise of "respecting the rights of the duchies" (1852).

1849. Completion of the constitution of the German Empire.

Diet, composed of a chamber of state, appointed half by the governments, half by the popular representatives of the separate states, and a popular chamber. Monarchical power with only a suspensive veto. Formation of two parties, the great German (Grossdeutsche) party, which wished to retain the German territory of Austria in Germany, and the small German (Kleindeutsche), which wished to exclude Austria and form a narrower confederacy under the hegemony of Prussia. 1849. The offer of the crown of emperor of the Germans, by a April 3. deputation of the national assembly at Frankfort, was de-

clined by the king. Frederic William declared that he could assume the imperial dignity only with the consent of all German gov-

ernments.

May. Uprising in Dresden (Tzschirner, Heubner, Todt, Bakunin) suppressed by Prussian assistance.

Recall and withdrawal of a great number of representatives 1849. from the national assembly at Frankfort. The Rump-Par-June. liament (president Löwe-Kalbe) in Stuttgart dissolved.

The administrator superseded by a central power to be executed by Austria and Prussia alternately, "for the German confederacy"

(The interim). Death of the administrator, Oct. 20, 1849.

May. Republican uprising in the county palatine and in the grand duchy of Baden (Struve, Mieroslawski); defection of the army. Prussian troops under the prince of Prussia entered Baden, defeated the insurgents at Waghäusel, besieged and captured Rastadt.

The commander *Tiedemann* and others were shot; many, among them the poet *Kinkel*, condemned to imprisonment for life with hard labor (*Kinkel*, 1850, in Spandau, was rescued by *Karl Schurz*).

1350, Feb. 6. In Prussia the king and legislature took the oath of

allegiance to the revised constitution.

Exertions of Prussia to create a German federal state (Bundestaat), with exclusion of Austria (Radowitz), actively supported by the old party of the hereditary empire in the Frankfort parliament, the Gothas (so called from a meeting in Gotha). The "alliance of the three kings" (Prussia, Hanover, Saxony), concluded May 26, 1849, which was immediately joined by most of the smaller German states, was soon broken up by the withdrawal of Hanover and Saxony. Nevertheless the

1850, March 20. Parliament of Erfurt was opened, which on the 27th April concluded the discussion of a new German Union.

May 9-16. Congress of princes in Berlin, wherein the dislike of electoral Hesse (Hassenpflug) for the union came to light. Creation of a college of princes. Austria opposed the efforts of Prussia by the

Sept. 2. Reopening of the Frankfort parliament.

Contest over the constitution in the electorate of Hesse. Repeated dissolution of the assembly of the estates by Hassenpflug. The whole country was pronounced in a state of war (Sept. 7). Resistance of the officials and the courts. The prince elector left the country and invited the intervention of the diet, which had been restored by Austria, but was not recognized by Prussia and her confederates; Hassenpflug ambassador to the diet. The diet granted aid to the prince elector, Prussia protesting. General Haynau appointed military dictator in electoral Hesse (Oct. 2). Almost the entire corps of officers in electoral Hesse received their dismissal.

Rupture between Prussia and Austria; Nicholas of Russia took sides with the latter (two meetings in Warsaw). Meeting of the emperor of Austria and the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg at Bregenz, directed against Prussia. Execution of the decree of the confederacy by Bavarian and Austrian troops. The Prussian government sent their troops (general Gröben) into electoral Hesse, and seemed for a moment about to oppose the execution of the decree of the confederacy (encounter of the pickets at Bronnzell, Nov. 8), but were finally satisfied with occupying the military roads of Prussia. Dismissal of the minister Radowitz, and thereby complete abandonment of the Prussian exertions for union. In the

1850. Conference at Olmütz (Manteuffel and Schwar-Nov. 29. zenberg) Prussia yielded to all the demands of Austria; Schleswig-Holstein was delivered to the Danes, the unlimited authority of the elector was restored in electoral Hesse. The question of the German constitution was settled at the

1850-1851. Conference at Dresden

Dec. 23-May 15. after a lengthy discussion, wherein the influence of the emperor of Russia had great weight, by a simple return to the diet of the confederacy. Prussia herself invited the former members of the union to send representatives to that body, so that the

1851. German confederation of 1815 was reëstablished in its

old form.

1851. First universal industrial exhibition in London.

1851. In Paris, coup d'état of Louis Napoleon, who be-Dec. 2. came president of the republic for ten years (p. 531).

1852, May 8. Treaty of London (protocol) signed by the five great powers and Sweden. In order to guarantee the integrity of the Danish monarchy, a successor was appointed for the crown of Denmark and for the duchies of Schleswig-Holstein, with-

out consulting the estates of the duchies. The female line next in succession having renounced its rights, Christian of Sonderburg-Glücksburg was proclaimed heir of the childless king Frederic VII. for the entire monarchy. This treaty was recognized by Hanover, Saxony, and Würtemberg, but not by the German confederation.

1852, Dec. 1. Napoleon III., emperor of the French (1852–1870).

1853-1856. War of Russia against Turkey and

1854-1856. War of the western powers against Russia. Crimean War.

Cause: Resuscitation of the old Russian plans of conquest (Catharine II. p. 411) against Turkey by Nicholas I. Thinking an alliance between England and France impossible, and believing that he had made sure of Austria and Prussia, he pressed forward without hesitation. He developed his views, concealing but little, to the English ambassador in St. Petersburg, Seymour: Servia, Bosnia, Bulgaria, and the principalities of the Danube should become independent states under Russian protection. Constantinople should be occupied provisionally, by Russian troops; the prospect of the acquisition of Crete and Egypt was held out to England. In spite of the unfavorable attitude of England, the emperor pursued his plans. Demand for a protectorate over all Christians of the Greek church in the Turkish empire, urged in an overbearing manner, by the Russian ambassador prince Mentchikoff. The Porte refused to listen to the proposition. Mentchikoff left Constantinople with threats (May 21, 1853).

to the Dardanelles, afterwards in the Bosphorus, for purposes of observation. 80,000 Russians crossed the Pruth and occupied the principalities of the Danube (July). Meeting between Nicholas and the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia in Olmütz (Sept.), where however, he did not obtain the desired alliance, but only an assurance of neutrality under certain conditions. The Porte declared war upon Russia (Oct.). Omer Pacha crossed the Danube and held his ground against the Russians at Oltenitza (Nov. 4). The Russian fleet surprised and defeated a Turkish squadron at Sinope, Nov. 4. Upon the refusal of the emperor to evacuate the principalities of the Danube, and after a Whig ministry (Palmerston) had taken the helm in England,

1854, March 12. Alliance of the western powers with Turkey, and March 28. declaration of war by England and France upon Russia. Paskevitch appointed to the chief command of the Russian army which crossed the Danube, but besieged Silistria in vain (June). England and France sent troops to the aid of Turkey, which concentrated in Gallipoli. Alliance between Prussia and Austria; these states declared the passage of the Balkans by the Russians an act of war, and soon demanded the evacuation of the principalities. The emperor Nicholas ordered the evacuation "for strategic reasons" (July). With the consent of the Porte the principalities were provisionally occupied by the Austrians.

A second French and English fleet (Napier) appeared in the Baltic, but could make no impression upon the fortress of Kronstadt and captured only the small fortress of Bomarsund, upon one of the Aland Islands.

At the southern seat of war, the allies landed at Varna, on the Black Sea (June). Marshal St. Arnaud and lord Raglan commanders-in-chief. The French invasion of the Dobrudsha was followed by great losses through sickness. At Varna the expedition to the Crimea was resolved upon, in order to destroy Sebastopol and annihilate the Russian naval power in the Black Sea. The French and English (50,000 men together) and 6,000 Turks landed at Eupatoria, on the west coast of the Crimea, Sept. 14, and defeated the Russians in the

1854. Battle of the Alma.

Sept. 20. Marshal St. Arnaud died of the cholera. The command of the French given to Canrobert. After the English had established themselves on the bay of Balaklava, and the French on the bay of Kamiesch, the

1854-1855. Siege of Sebastopol

Oct. Nov. began. The city was surrounded by new fortresses by Mentchikoff, under the superintendence of Totleben, and the harbor closed by sunken ships of war. An attack of the allies upon Sebastopol failed (Oct. 17). The Russian general Liprandi attacked the English at Balaklava (Oct. 25) and inflicted a severe loss upon them (charge of the Light Brigade). After Mentchikoff had received reinforcements, he attacked the allies anew, but was defeated in the bloody

1854, Nov. 5. Battle of Inkermann.

Slow progress of the siege works during the winter. After the emperor of Russia had rejected the conditions of peace which were supported by Prussia and Austria, the latter power joined the alliance of the western powers (Dec. 1854), and placed a considerable force upon the Russian boundary without, however, commencing actual operations of war. Prussia persisted in her neutral attitude. Victor Emmanuel of Sardinia concluded an alliance with the western powers and sent 15,000 men under La Marmora to the Crimea. A Russian attack upon Eupatoria was repulsed by the Turks.

1855, March 2. Death of Nicholas I. His son

1855-1881. Alexander II. (abolition of serfdom 1858-1863).

Prince Gortchakoff received the chief command in Sebastopol. After fruitless negotiations in Vienna, Austria again assumed an attitude of waiting and withdrew a portion of the troops on the Russian border. Enormous losses among the besiegers, from sickness (Florence Nightingale). Privations and daily skirmishes. At the request of Canrobert the command of the French forces was transferred to general Pélissier (May 16). A general storm was repulsed, with great loss to the allies (June 18). Lord Raglan died June 28, and Simpson became commander-in-chief of the English army.

After a continuous bombardment and many bloody engagements 1855. Storm of the Malakoff tower by the French, and of the Sept. 8. Redan by the English, who were, however, soon driven out again by the Russians.

. 11. The Russians, by means of a pontoon bridge, withdrew into the northern part of the fortress. Occupation of the city of

Sebastopol by the allies.

Nov. 28. In Asia, capture of the fortress of Kars by the Russians. At the congress of Paris (France, England, Russia, Turkey, Sardinia, Austria, and at the last Prussia), the

1856, March 30. Peace of Paris was agreed upon.

1. Russia ceded the mouths of the Danube and a small portion of Bessarabia on the left bank of the lower Danube. 2. Russia renounced the one-sided protectorate over the Christians in Turkey (whose elevation to equality with the Mohammedan population was promised by the Porte), and over the principalities of the Danube, whose relations were to be settled later. 3. Russia restored Kars, and promised not to establish any arsenals upon the Black Sea, nor to maintain there more ships than the Porte. 4. The western powers restored Sebastopol to Russia, after having destroyed the docks, the constructions in the harbor, and the fortifications. [5. Adoption of the four rules: 1. Privateering is and remains abolished. 2. The neutral flag covers an enemy's goods, except contraband of war. 3. Neutral goods, except contraband of war, not liable to capture under an enemy's flag. 4. Blockades, to be binding, must be effective.]

1856-1857. Dispute between the king of *Prussia* and *Switzerland*, in consequence of a hasty suppression of a royalistic outbreak in *Neuchâtel (Neuenburg)*, settled by the release of the royalistic prisoners by the Swiss, and the renunciation of *Neuchâtel* by the king of

Prussia.

1857–1860. French and English expedition against China.

Cause: infractions of the treaty with the English (of 1842) by the Chinese led to hostilities in Oct., 1856, between the English and the Chinese officials of Canton. The French government, which purposed an alteration of the commercial treaty with China, joined in supporting the English demands.

1857, Dec. Occupation of Canton by the allies.

1858. Treaty of *Tien-Tsin*, which opened to European trade and the June. missionaries entrance to the interior of China, and allowed standing embassies to be established in the capital, *Pekin*.

1859, June. Infraction of the treaty of *Tien-Tsin*. The English, French, and American ambassadors, who were on their way to

Pekin, were turned back at the mouth of the Pei-ho.

The attempt of the English and French to force their passage failed; an attack upon the forts, undertaken with but few troops, was repulsed with great loss.

1860. Landing of a French (general Montauban) and English (gen-May. eral Grant) corps at Shang-hai; storm of the fortified camp, while the flotilla of the allies proceeded up the Pei-ho.

Negotiations commenced by the Chinese. In consequence of their

dubious and faithless conduct the allies made a new advance, defeated

a Tatar army of 25,000 men in the

1860. Battle of Palikao, and marched upon Pekin. Destruction of Sept. 21. the summer palace of the emperor as punishment for the cruel mutilation and execution of several persons whom the Chinese had treacherously captured. In affright prince Kong, the emperor's brother, concluded the

1860. Peace of Pekin, which ratified the treaty of *Tien-Tsin* and Oct. 24, 25. imposed upon the Chinese the payment of a large in-

demnity.

1857. Illness of Frederic William IV. The prince of Prussia as-Oct. sumed the vice-regency, and later (Oct. 7, 1858) the regency as provided by the constitution of Prussia. The prince regent replaced the ministry of Manteuffel by an old liberal ministry (prince of Hohenzollern, Auerswald, Schleinitz, Bonin, Bethmann-Hollweg, and afterwards count Schwerin).

1859. War of France and Sardinia with Austria.

April-July. An Austrian ultimatum having been rejected, field-marshal Gyulay crossed the Tessin, but his inactivity gave the French time to come to the assistance of the Piedmontese. Napoleon III. assumed the chief command.

An extensive reconnoitring expedition of Gyulay's led to the

May 20. Engagement of Montebello; the Austrians, after obstinate resistance, driven back. Garibaldi and his volunteers invaded Lombardy. The allies assuming the offensive, Gyulay retired across the Tessin and was defeated in the

June 4. Battle of Magenta

(Napoleon III., Canrobert, MacMahon).

Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel entered Milan. The emperor Francis Joseph took the chief command in person. The Austrian army was defeated by the allies in the

June 24. Battle of Solferino.

The emperor Francis Joseph in a meeting with Napoleon III. July 11, in Villafranca was induced to accept preliminaries of peace (exchanged July 8) which were ratified and completed in the 1859, Nov. 10. Peace of Zurich.

1. The emperor Francis Joseph ceded Lombardy (with the exception of Mantua and Peschiera) to Napoleon III., who surrendered it to Sardinia. 2. Italy was to form a confederation (Staatenbund) under the honorary presidency of the Pope. 3. The sovereigns of Tuscany and Modena, who had been expelled in April and July, were to be reinstated; the revolted legations (Bologna, etc.), were to be given back to the Pope, but "without foreign intervention."

Despite these enactments of the peace of Zürich

1860. Tuscany, Parma (whose sovereigns had likewise been expelled), Spring. Modena, and the papal legations were united with the monarchy of Victor Emmanuel, who, in return, was obliged to surrender Savoy and Nice to France.

Descent of Garibaldi with 1,000 volunteers (soon 4,000, May 11)

upon Sicily. He marched upon Palermo. Bombardment of the city by the Neapolitan general Lanza, whereupon the city capitulated on condition of the free withdrawal of 25,000 Neapolitan troops (June 6). Messina evacuated by the Neapolitans, with the exception of the citadel (June 28). Garibaldi landed on the mainland (Aug. 20). Surrender of Reggio, triumphal progress through the southern half of the peninsula. King Francis I. left his capital, Naples, and retired behind the Volturno with 40,000 men, retreating to the fortresses of Gaëta and Capua (Sept.). Meanwhile the Piedmontese troops under Fanti and Cialdini had entered Umbria and the Marches, where the desire for annexation had long since made itself manifest. The French general Lamoricière, who had entered the papal service, was defeated in the

1860. Engagement at Castelfidardo by Cialdini. Sept. 18. States (excepting the Patrimonium Petri) were annexed by Victor Emmanuel, who thereupon invaded the Neapolitan territory (Oct.) and joined Garibaldi. The Neapolitan army retreated behind the Garigliano, Capua was taken. Francis II. and his troops retired to Gaëta.

1860-1861. Siege of Gaëta. Francis II. capitulated after a brave Nov. 12-Feb. 13. defence and went to Rome.

1861, March 17. Victor Emmanuel king of Italy.

With the exception of Venice and the Patrimonium Petri the whole peninsula was united under one sceptre. Death of Cavour, June 6, 1861. New expedition of Garibaldi, with volunteer bands, to liberate Rome, against the wishes of the government. He was wounded and captured at Aspromonte, the southern point of Italy, Aug. 29, 1862. Treaty between France and Italy (Sept. 15, 1864), whereby the duration of the French occupation of Rome was limited to two years, Florence was made the capital of Italy, and the Italian government undertook to protect the Patrimonium Petri against any foreign invasion.

1861, Jan. 2. Death of Frederic William IV. The prince regent

mounted the throne as

William I., king of Prussia, 1861 — **x**.

1861-1867. Mexican Expedition, undertaken, at first, by France, England, and Spain in common.

Treaty of London between these three powers. The purpose of the expedition was to force the republic of Mexico to fulfill certain treaty obligations towards these nations.

1861, Dec.-1862, Jan. Occupation of La Vera Cruz and the fort of

San Juan d'Ulloa by the allies.

Treaty of La Soledad with Juarez, president of Mexico, who Feb. 19. promised to pay the indemnity and the arrears of debt, as required. Juarez did not fulfill the obligations incurred, and demanded the delivery of his opponent, Almonte, who had come to the French camp from Paris.

England and Spain withdrew from the expedition. Napoleon III., acting on the expectation that the republic of the United States of America would be broken up by the war between the North and the

South, resolved to create a monarchy in *Mexico*. Magnificent plan to check the spread of the Anglo-Germanic race by this expedition, and induce a regeneration of the *Latin* race.

1862. An attack upon Puebla by 5,000 French repulsed. Retreat to

May. Orizaba. The emperor sent 25,000 men as reinforcements, followed by more considerable numbers, to Mexico. After a long and bloody contest

1863. Puebla, bravely defended by Ortega, was captured by the May. French general Forey, who entered Mexico. The French

called an assembly of notables, composed of opponents of Juarez, caused the monarchy to be proclaimed by this body, and the imperial crown of Mexico to be offered to the archduke Maximilian, brother of the emperor Francis Joseph of Austria. This young and ambitious prince, gifted with excellent abilities, suffered himself to be inveigled by Napoleon III. into accepting the crown.

1864, June. Arrival of *Maximilian* in Mexico. Prolonged contest with the republican armies. The new monarchy constantly in financial difficulties. Impossibility of establishing a settled state of

affairs in a land so torn with party feuds.

Meanwhile the end of the civil war in the United States had completely altered the political relations. The decisive demand of the United States government that the French troops should be withdrawn from Mexico, put a sudden end to the magnificent plans of the French emperor. He submitted at once to the request of the United States.

1867. Withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico. The emperor Spring. Maximilian, who refused to leave with the French, continued the war alone. After a brave resistance he was surrounded in Queretaro, captured by treachery (Lopez?), brought to trial before a court-martial at Juarez' command, and shot (June 19, 1867).

In Austria, in spite of the vehement opposition of the nobility and

the clergy,

1861. Publication of a new, liberal constitution for the united Feb. 26. monarchy with a close diet for the Germano-Slavonic

lands, and a wider diet (only projected, however) which by the participation of *Hungarian* members was to represent the *united monarchy*, with the exception of *Venice*, for which the introduction of a special constitution was promised. Resistance to the *February constitution*, not only by the *Hungarians*, who demanded the restoration of their separate constitution with a special ministry, but also by the *national* parties of the other non-Germanic peoples of the empire.

1861. Coronation of the king of Prussia, William I. in Königsberg; Oct. 18. soon after there broke out a constitutional conflict in consequence of a reorganization of the army which the government had carried out. Dissolution of the house of representatives (March, 1862). Resignation of the Schwerin ministry. Heydt ministry. The opposition majority returned from the new elections (May) with increased strength (party of progress (Fortschritt), and the left centre).

Von Bismarck (Otto Edward Leopold, prince of Bismarck-Schönhausen, born 1815, 1848 member of the united Prussian legislature,

1851 member of the diet of the confederation at Frankfort, afterwards ambassador at St. Petersburg and at Paris) became president of the ministry. The ministry governed without the passage of a money bill. [Especial care bestowed upon the army, in which, according to Bismarck, the hope of Prussia and Germany rested ("Blood and Iron")].

1862. Revolution in Greece. King Otto († 1867) compelled to leave the country by an insurrection. Provisional government. After a long search the Greeks found in George of Denmark a prince who accepted their throne (1863). England ceded to Greece the Ionian Islands (p. 483).

1863, Jan. Uprising in Poland and Lithuania suppressed in the

spring of 1864.

1863. Congress of German princes at Frankfort o. M., under Aug. the presidency of Francis Joseph, emperor of Austria, to consider a reorganization of Germany. The meeting was without result, Prussia refusing to take any part in the deliberations.

The "Eider-Danes" in Copenhagen having brought about the

1863. Incorporation of Schleswig with Denmark, the patience of March 30. the diet of the German confederation, so well preserved in face of the encroachments of the Danes since 1852, was exhausted, and an immediate execution of the decree of the confederation was decreed (Oct. 1).

1863, Nov. 15. Death of Frederic VII., king of Denmark.

According to the London Protocol (p. 498), Christian IX. succeeded for the entire monarchy. In spite of this and regardless of his father's renunciation, the hereditary prince of Augustenburg pro-

claimed himself duke of Schleswig-Holstein as Frederic VIII.

Yielding to the pressure of the influential party of the Eider-Danes in Copenhagen, Christian IX. accepted the new Danish constitution which incorporated Schleswig with Denmark. Great excitement in Germany. Public opinion decidedly favored the complete separation of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark, and demanded of the German confederation at least a preliminary occupation of the duchies. On the motion of Austria and Prussia, however, who were bound by the London Protocol, the confederation undertook nothing but the execution of its decree, and caused Hanoverians and Saxons (general Hake) to enter the duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, which belonged to the confederation. Frederic VIII. proclaimed duke throughout Holstein.

1864, Feb.-Oct. War of Austria and Prussia with Denmark.

Cause: Austria and Prussia demanded the repeal of the November constitution as being inconsistent with former agreements. (Denmark in 1852, when the two powers handed over Schleswig-Holstein to her, had promised "to respect the rights of the duchies," which clearly excluded an incorporation of Schleswig.) Refusal of Denmark. Advance of the Austro-Prussian army (Feb. 1, field-marshal v. Wrangel, prince Frederic Charles; Austrian general v. Gablenz) into Schleswig. (Holstein continued in possession of the troops of the confederation.) The Austrians advanced upon the Danewerk,

under heavy fighting; the Prussians, after an unsuccessful cannonade at Missunde, crossed the Schlei at Arnis. The Danish commander De Meza surrendered the Danewerk Feb. 5, 6. He was replaced by general Gerlach. The Austrians under Gablenz undertook to clear North Schleswig of the Danes. (Brilliant engagement of the Austrian advance at Översee, Feb. 6.) The Prussians under prince Frederic Charles undertook the difficult operation against the entrenchments of Isuppel, which had been transformed to a veritable fortress.

1864. Skirmishes and preliminary operations until the arrival of the

Feb. 22-March 12. siege artillery.

March 15-April 18. Actual siege of the entrenchments of Düppel.

April 18. Brilliant storming of Düppel by the Prussians. Capture of all the entrenchments. The Danes retreated to Alsen, evacuating the fortress of Fredericia. A part of Jütland occupied by the allies, as a ransom.

May 12-June 26. Truce, and meanwhile peace conference at

London.

Prussia and Austria seceded from the London Protocol. As no agreement could be reached either in regard to a personal union of the duchies with the crown of Denmark (Beust objecting as representative of the confederation), or in regard to the division of Schleswig according to nationality, the war broke out anew. The Prussians under prince Frederic Charles (who had received the chief command) accomplished the

June 28-29. Passage to the island of Alsen, defeated the Danes at all points, and took a large number of prisoners. All Jüt-

land occupied by the allies.

At sea a Prussian squadron under Jachmarn had fought successfully at Jasmund, March 17, while an Austro-Prussian fleet under Tegethoff had won a victory at Heligoland, and after the truce had captured the islands off Friesland. These misfortunes induced Christian IX. to make direct applications for peace, which led to the 1864, Oct. 30. Peace of Vienna.

1. The king of Denmark renounced all his rights to the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg in favor of the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia. 2. He agreed to recognize whatever disposition the monarchs should make of these three states.

Upon the motion of the two great powers, the execution against *Holstein* was declared by the confederation to be completed; the troops of the confederation (*Hanoverians* and *Saxons*) evacuated the country. *Prussia* and *Austria* established a common government in the

city of Schleswig.

While the question of the succession was zealously discussed in the diet of the confederation, in diplomatic negotiations, and in the press, and the cause of the hereditary prince was agitated in both duchies, the Austrian and Prussian commissioners became involved in a wretched conflict. In order to put an end to this, the final decision in regard to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein was postponed and the

1865. Treaty of Gastein was concluded between Prussia and Aus-Aug. 14. tria.

1. Both powers retained the sovereignty of both duchies, in common; Austria assuming the provisional administration of Holstein, Prussia that of Schleswig.

2. Rendsburg to be a fortress of the confederation, Kiel a harbor of the confederation; the use of this harbor was to be in common, but Prussia received the chief command there; a military road, a telegraph and postal line through Holstein were guaranteed to Prussia.

3. The emperor of Austria surrendered all his rights to the duchy of Lauenburg to the king of Prussia for two and a half million rix dol-

lars.

In execution of this treaty Prussia occupied the duchy of Schleswig (governor, v. Manteuffel) and Austria the duchy of Holstein (governor, v. Gablenz). The duchy of Lauenburg, after the consent of the estates had been obtained, was joined in personal union to the crown of Prussia.

Deep dissatisfaction with this treaty in the rest of Germany. Between the two great powers new disputes soon broke out. Austria, being determined not to agree, under any circumstances, to a real increase of Prussian power, returned to the attitude of the confederation upon this point, and entered into agreement with the middle states of Germany. Prussia, regarding the decision of the German question by war as unavoidable, entered into negotiations with Italy.

1866. The Austro-Prussian War.¹

June 16-July 22. The war proper lasted one month: June 22 to (Aug. 23). July 22.

Allies of Prussia: the smaller North German states and Italy.

Allies of Austria: Bavaria, Würtemberg, Saxony, Hanover, Baden, the two Hesses.

Cause of the war: the desire of the German people for greater unity, and the impossibility of reaching a re-organization of Germany with a strong central government as long as two great powers confronted one another in the German confederation, one having a pop-

ulation largely non-Germanic, with non-Germanic interests.

Special cause: the quarrel about the future of the North Albingian duchies. Austria wished that the crown prince of Augustenburg should be recognized as duke of Schleswig-Holstein, and join the confederation as a sovereign prince. Prussia demanded (note of Feb. 22, 1865) that in case a new small state, Schleswig-Holstein, was created: 1. its whole military force should become an integral part of the Prussian army and fleet, and its postal and telegraph systems be united with those of Prussia; 2. that several important military posts (Friedrichsort, Sonderburg, etc.) should be given to Prussia, to enable her to undertake the necessary protection of the new state against Denmark.

Reason for the participation of Italy in the war: the favorable opportunity of acquiring Venice.

^{1 &}quot;Der Feldzug von 1866 in Deutschland" (by the Prussian General Staff), and Oesterreichs Kampf im Jahre 1866 (by the Austrian General Staff).

Arming of the three powers, each claiming to be driven to that

step by the preparations of its opponent.

The chief command of the Austrian armies in Bohemia and Moravia (northern army) given to general Benedek (240,000 men), who made his headquarters at Olmütz. The command of the army in Venice (southern army) given to archduke Albert.

Prussia placed five armies in the field:—

- 1. First army in Lusatia (93,000) under prince Frederic Charles.
- 2. Second (Silesian) army (115,000) under the crown prince, Frederic William.
- 3. The army of the Elbe (46,000) in *Thuringia* under general Herwarth von Bittenfeld.

4. The reserve army at Berlin under general v. Mülbe (24,000).

5. The army of the Main not formed until later, at first divided into three corps, Vogel v. Falckenstein at Minden, Manteuffel at Schleswig, Beyer at Wetzlar (in all 48,000 men). Commander-in-chief of all forces, king William I.; chief of the great general staff, general v. Moltke.

The mediation of France, England, and Russia, proffered at Frankfort, May 27, 28, was frustrated by the demand of Austria that at any peace conference which might be held there should be no reference to an alteration of boundaries.

The convocation of the Holstein assembly of estates (June 2) by the Austrian governor, v. Gablenz, led to an open rupture. Prussia declared that the treaty of Gastein was broken, and general v. Manteuffel entered Holstein (June 7); v. Gablenz, under protest, retreated to Altona with the Austrian brigade, and thence to Hanoverian territory.

On the motion of Austria, which declared the peace of the confed-

eration broken by the action of Prussia in Holstein,

1866. The diet decreed the mobilization of the whole army of June 14. the confederation, with exception of the three Prussian corps. Secession of Prussia, and dissolution of the German confederation.

June 15. Prussia called upon Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse to disregard the resolve of the confederacy, to replace their troops upon a peace footing, and join a new confederation under the lead of Prussia. Upon the rejection of these demands, the Prussians invaded Hanover and Electoral Hesse. King George retreated to the south; the elector, Frederic William, was carried to Stettin a prisoner. The Prussians invaded Saxony (Herwarth); the Saxon army, king, and government retreating to Bohemia. Dresden occupied (June 18); all Saxony, excepting Königstein, in the hands of the Prussians (June 20).

Prussia resolved upon an offensive war. The occupation of Saxony opened the way for a strategic march of the army of the Elbe and the first army along the line of Bautzen-Dresden. The concentration of the Austrian power about Olmütz threatened the province of Silesia, but the Austrian army not being completely ready, the Prussians determined to forestall the enemy by an invasion of Bohemia.

A. Principal Scene of War in Bohemia.

June 22-25. Prussian invasion of Bohemia.

June 26, 27. Prussian victories (under prince Frederic Carl and the crown prince) at Hühnerwasser, Nachod (June 27); victory of the Austrians at Trautenau (June 27).

June 28. Prince Frederic Charles at Münchengrätz forced back the

Austrians and Saxons.

Meantime the Silesian army defeated v. Gablentz at Soor (June 28), and the crown prince occupied Trautenau. Prussian victories of Skalitz (June 28, heavy losses) and Gitschin (June 29). Capture of

Königinhof.

The engagement at Schweinschädel completed the purposed approach of the two Prussian armies to one another. They were purposely not united, but kept asunder in a manner "which, being without danger strategically considered, secured great tactical advantages." Hitherto the chief movements of both armies had been directed by telegraph from Berlin.

June 30. King William I. and general Von Moltke, chief of the

general staff, left Berlin for the seat of war.

On July 2 it was decided to attack the Austrians with the whole force on the next day, they being stationed behind the *Bistritz brook*, with the fortress of *Königgrätz* and the *Elbe* in their rear.

1866. July 3. Battle of Königratz or Sadowa.

The first Prussian army, united with that of the Elbe (king William I., prince Frederic Charles, v. Herwarth), had a severe contest with the northern army of Austria, in an advantageous position, under Benedek; in the afternoon the second (Silesian army), under the crown prince, gained the flank and rear of the Austrians, after a fatiguing march, and in combination with the first army secured the complete victory of the Prussians. Pursuit was stopped by the Elbe and by the exhaustion of the troops. Retreat of the Austrians toward Olmütz.

Francis Joseph appealed to the mediation of France, and ceded Venetia to Napoleon III., but the truce desired by France was rejected by *Prussia* and *Italy*. Two thirds of the Austrian southern

army was transferred to the northern seat of war.

Occupation of Prague by the Prussians (July 10), of Brünn (July

12). March of the main Prussian army upon Vienna.

Benedek advanced to the defence of the capital, but was cut off from the direct way by the rapid advance of prince Frederic Charles, and forced to attempt the circuitous route by way of the Little Carpathians. A Prussian corps invaded Hungary.

July 22. The engagement of *Blumenau* was broken off by the announcement of the conclusion of a truce for five days, which

was converted into

July 26. The truce of Nikolsburg, after the preliminaries of peace had been signed under French mediation (p. 510).

P. Western Seat of War.

The entire army of the confederation was under the command of prince Charles of Bavaria.

1866. Victory of 16,000 Hanoverians over 8,000 Prussians and June 27. troops of Coburg-Gotha, at Langensalza; the junction of the Hanoverians with their southern allies was, however, prevented.

June 29. Capitulation of the Hanoverians at Lagensalza.

July 4-14. Victories of the Prussians at Dermbach (July 4), and in five battles on the Frankish Saale, over the south German troops (Hammelburg, Kissingen, Friedrichshall, Hausen, Waldaschach) July 10, thus forcing the passage of the river.

July 14. Engagement at Aschaffenburg; victory over the united Hessian, Austrian, and Darmstadt troops. Occupation of Frankfort (July 16) and Darmstadt (July 17). Occupation of Würzburg and Nuremberg.

Aug. 2. Truce.

C. Seat of War in Italy.

1866. Battle of Custozza; victory of the Austrians (archduke June 24. Albert) over the Italians (king Victor Emmanuel). The Italian army retreated across the Mincio, but after the Austrian army was transferred, in large part, to the seat of war in the north, the Italians again advanced.

July 20. Naval victory of the Austrians (Tegethoff) at Lissa over

the Italians (Persano).

1866. Peace of Prague

Aug. 23. between Prussia and Austria.

1. The emperor of Austria recognized the dissolution of the German confederation, and consented to a reorganization of Germany without Austria, and agreed to the annexations contemplated by Prussia. A special condition secured Saxony (as a member of the new north German confederation) from an alteration of her boundary. 2. Austria transferred to Prussia her rights in Schleswig-Holstein, with the reservation that the northern districts of Schleswig should be reunited with Denmark, should the inhabitants express a desire for such reunion by a free popular vote (rescinded, 1878). 3. Austria paid twenty million rix dollars (\$15,000,000) for the costs of the war. 4. At the request of Prussia Venice was ceded to Italy.

Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Electoral Hessen, Nassau, and the free city of Frankfort were definitively incorporated with Prussia, so that by this successful war the extent of the monarchy was increased from 111,000 square miles (over nineteen million inhabitants) to 140,000 square miles (twenty-three and a half million inhabitants).

Peace between Prussia and Würtemberg (Aug. 13), Baden (Aug.

17), Bavaria (Aug. 22), Hesse (Sept. 3), Saxony (Oct. 21).

The proposed cessions of territory in the southern states were in the main given up, inasmuch as Napoleon III. showed a desire for a rectification of boundaries as regarded Germany; conclusion of an offensive and defensive alliance between *Prussia* and the southern states. Reciprocal guarantee of territorial integrity. The southern states placed their entire military force under the command of the king of Prussia in the event of war. The demand of Napoleon III. rejected.

1866. Peace of Vienna

Oct. 3. between Austria and Italy. Austria recognized the kingdom of Italy, with which Venice was united. Prussia having concluded an alliance with the North German states in August, 1866, elections for a North German diet were prescribed on a basis of manhood and direct suffrage.

1867. First diet of the North German Confederation.

ments upon a constitution for the North German Confederation: presidency of the league united with the crown of Prussia, which represented the confederation in its international relations, declared war, concluded peace and treaties, and accredited ambassadors in its name. The governments were represented in the council of the confederation (Bundesrath), in which Prussia had seventeen votes, and the other twenty-one members twenty-six votes altogether. Imperial diet (Reichstag) originating from direct manhood suffrage. Centralized military system, under the command of the king of Prussia. Universal compulsory military service. United customs, postal, and telegraph service. Count Bismarck, chancellor of the confederation.

was undertaken, in consequence of the unsuccessful war. The former Saxon minister, von Beust, president of the ministry, afterwards (until 1871) chancellor of the empire. Reconciliation with Hungary. Restoration of the Hungarian constitution. Solemn coronation of the emperor Francis Joseph in Pesth as king of Hungary. Reunion of the dependent lands (Croatia, Transylvania) with Hungary. Establishment of a liberal constitution in that part of the monarchy this side of the Leith (Cisleithania). (The constitution of 1861, p. 504, was suspended in 1865.) Germano-Slavonic Reichstag.

1867. Luxemburg question.

Napoleon III. wished to secretly indemnify the French nation for the increased power of Prussia by a new annexation. His negotiations with the king of Holland in regard to the purchase of the grand duchy of Luxemburg were broken off in consequence of the objection of Prussia, whereupon Napoleon III. demanded that the Prussian garrison of Luxemburg should evacuate the fortress. Under the excitement which the dispute aroused in Germany and France, the outbreak of war seemed unavoidable, when the

1867. London Conference (Italy recognized as the sixth great May 7-11. power) succeeded in establishing the following agreements: 1. The neutrality of the grand duchy was guaranteed by the great powers in common. 2. The Prussian garrison evacuated Luxemburg, and the fortifications were razed.

1867. Italian volunteers, with the tacit favor of the Italian govern-Sept.—Nov. ment, made an attack upon the papal territory. Napoleon III. declared the former treaty (p. 503) broken, and sent assistance to the Pope. The free troops were defeated at *Mentana*. Rome received a new French garrison.

1868, April. First customs parliament in Germany.

Sept. ist troops under Novaliches were defeated by the insurgent troops under Serrano at Alcolea. Queen Isabella fled to France; the whole country declared in favor of the revolution. Provisional government. The Bourbons deposed from the throne. Summons of a constitutional cortes. The majority of the cortes established, in spite of the opposition of the numerous republican members, a new constitutional monarchy. Serrano provisional regent. After many negotiations with foreign princes, conducted by Prim (murdered 1870), without result, the prince of Hohenzollern (1870, p. 513) accepted the Spanish crown. After his withdrawal, during the Franco-Prussian war, the duke of Aosta, the second son of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy, was elected by the cortes, and ascended the throne as 1870–1873. Amadeus I., king of Spain.

1869. In France general election for the corps législatif; for the first time during the second empire, strong manifestation of party spirit, and a large number of votes cast. The departments, especially the country population, gave the government a good majority, though weaker than formerly. In Paris and Lyons victory of the ultra radical party, and election of candidates opposed to the govern-

ment and the dynasty.

1869, Nov. 16. Formal opening of the Suez Canal, which was completed by the indomitable perseverance of its projector, the Frenchman, Ferdinand de Lesseps.

1869, Dec. 8. Opening of the Vatican Council. Proclamation of the dogma of papal infallibility July 18, 1870, by a vote of

547 to 2. Adjournment of the council, Oct. 20, 1870.

Vacillating and indecisive conduct of the emperor Napoleon IIL in face of the daily increasing dissatisfaction in the country with the arbitrary character of the government, which was no longer offset by any brilliant achievements outside. Dismissal of the "vice emperor" Rouher (July). Formation of a new cabinet, composed of similar reactionary elements; then, as the different factions of the opposition (Thiers, Ollivier, Favre, Gambetta, Rochefort) grew more bold, formation of the

1870, Jan. Ministry of Ollivier from the ranks of the moderate liberals. Dismissal of the prefect of the Seine, Hausmann. The death of a radical journalist at the hands of Pierre Bonaparte, a cousin of the emperor (self-defence or murder?), produced an extraordinary excitement in Paris. Riots. Condemnation and imprisonment of Rochefort, in consequence of his incendiary newspaper articles. New riots. Arrest of many radicals. Prince Pierre Bonaparte declared not guilty by the court in Tours.

April. A new liberal constitution, introduced by the government, was accepted by a decree of the senate, whereupon a vote of confidence was demanded from the people by a "plebiscite" (May), which resulted, thanks to the application of well-known methods, in a majority of more than seven million yeas to one and a half million nays, the latter being cast in Paris and the larger cities. In the

army and the fleet more than 50,000 voted "no." In view of this grave dissatisfaction in the army, and of the constant agitation of the parties, which were in no wise quieted by the liberal concessions which had been made, a diversion, to be induced by involving the country in foreign disputes, such as had often been tried in France, seemed to be the best means of extrication. To the adoption of this means the emperor, who was anxious for the future of his dynasty, was more and more strongly urged by his intimate councillors (the empress, marshal Lebouf, duke of Gramont, minister of foreign affairs).

1870, July 19–1871, March 3. Franco-Prussian War.¹

General Causes: 1. The idea entertained by a great part of the French nation, and kept alive by historians, poets, and the daily press, of the reconquest of the left bank of the Rhine (les frontières naturelles 2). 2. The French, not understanding the long struggle of the German nation for political unity, saw in the consummation of this union only a forcible aggrandizement of Prussia, and in the victory of the latter state over Austria an unpermissible encroachment upon their own military fame.

Special causes: 1. The internal troubles of the government of Napoleon III. (p. 512). 2. The rejection of the "compensation" demanded, since 1866, from the cabinet of Berlin, for the growth of Prussia in extent and population. 3. News of the approaching introduction of an improved weapon for the north German infantry, which threatened to put in question the superiority of the French

chassepot.

Immediate cause: The election of the prince of Hohenzollern to the throne of Spain (512), which was represented in Paris as a Prussian intrigue endangering the safety of France. The request made by the French ambassador Benedetti in Ems of king William I. in person, that he should forbid the prince of Hohenzollern to accept the Spanish crown, was refused. After the voluntary withdrawal of the prince, the French government looked to the king of Prussia for a distinct announcement "that he would never again permit the candidacy of the prince for the Spanish crown." King William refused to discuss the matter, and referred Benedetti to the regular method of communication through the ministry at Berlin. This and the telegraphic announcement of the proceeding was represented by the duke of Gramont as an insult to France. Tremendous excitement in Paris, artificially fermented (cries of "à Berlin!"). In the corps législatif (July 15), opposition of a small minority (Thiers: "because France is not prepared for war") to the declaration of war, which the imperial government declared was forced upon them by Prussia ("La France accepte la guerre que la Prusse lui offre").

VII., 1444.

¹ Der deutsch-franz. Krieg 1870-71, edited by the division of the Prussian General Staff on military history. Niemann, Der franz. Feldzug von 1870-71, 2 vols. An English rendering of the French view of the war will be found in Jerrold's Life of Napoleon III., vol. iv.

2 The first use of this idea, which can be established, was by king Charles

In Germany quiet but decided attitude of the government and the people. William I. on his return to Berlin enthusiastically received (July 15). The same evening mobilization of the north German army and convention of the Reichstag ordered.

July 19. Delivery of the French declaration of war.

Opening of the north German Reichstag, which unanimously

voted a war credit (July 23).

South Germany understood that the French attack, although apparently directed against Prussia alone, was in reality an attack upon the German nation, and that Napoleon's purpose was the conquest of German territory and the establishment of a new confederation of the Rhine. The patriotic attitude of Louis II. of Bavaria, who on July 16 had declared that the case of war contemplated in the confederation was at hand, and had ordered the mobilization of the Bavarian army, had a decisive influence upon Würtemberg. Patriotic attitude of Baden.

The French cabinet, which had counted on the neutrality of south Germany, at the least, undeceived. Hence a new military plan. The grand army was to be divided into three groups, the two former (250,000) of which were to force neutrality upon the south Germans, and hasten the hoped-for alliance with Austria and Italy. This should be followed by an attack upon the north German army, while expeditions to the coasts of the German ocean should instigate an uprising in Hanover and secure the assistance of Denmark. In reality the strategic advance of the French army took place as follows:—

1. Corps under marshal MacMahon, at Strasburg.

2. Corps under general De Failly at Bitsch.

3. Corps under Marshal Bazaine at Metz.

4. Corps under general Ladmirault at Thionville (Diedenhofen).

The corps of marshal Canrobert at Châlons, of general F. Douay at Belfort, and the Garde under general Bourbaki at Nancy formed the reserve (320,000). Commander-in-chief, Napoleon III.; chief of the general staff, marshal Lebœuf.

It appearing that most of the corps were not in readiness for war the plan of attack was exchanged for a defensive plan.

The German forces moved in three great armies.

I. Army, right wing, Steinmetz at Coblentz (60,000).

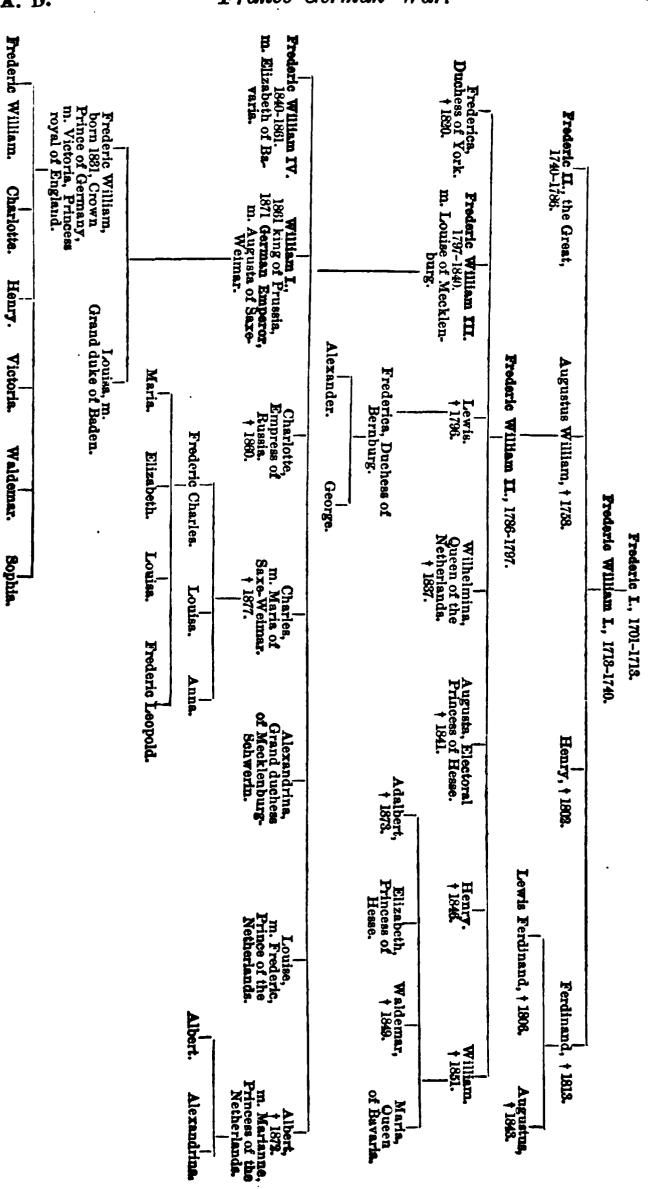
II. Army, centre, prince Frederic Charles, Mainz (131,000, with the reserve 194,000).

III. Army, left wing, crown prince Frederic William at Mann-heim (130,000).

The total strength of the north German army 750,000 (of which 198,000 were Landwehr); of the south German 100,000. Commander-in-chief, king William I.; chief of the general staff, general Von Moltke.

The strategic movement of the German armies was at first planned for defense simply, but as the enemy's delay gave a chance for an attack an advance of all three armies towards the boundary, from Trier to Landau, began in the latter part of July. Before the Germans could take the offensive the French made an

THE HOHENZOLLERNS SINCE THE ASSUMPTION OF THE ROYAL TITLE.



1870. Attack upon Saarbrücken. The repulse of a single bat-Aug. 2. talion by three divisions was represented in the French reports as an important victory.

4. Engagement at Weissenburg. MacMahon after a most

courageous defense defeated in the

Aug. 6. Battle of Worth (Reichshofen) by the army of the crown prince, which was numerically greatly his superior.

Aug. 6. German victory at Spicheren (Saarbrücken).

In consequence of these defeats the French army commenced its retreat to the *Moselle*. The crown prince detached a corps to besiege *Strasburg* and other Alsatian fortresses, and advanced upon *Nancy*; the I. army marched upon *Metz*; the II. army upon *Pont à Mousson*, with the intention of surrounding the main force of the French about Metz and cutting them off from Paris.

To prevent this Bazaine, upon whom the emperor had conferred the chief command, resolved, after some indecision, to retreat upon Châlons-sur-Marne and join there the remnants of MacMahon's command and a newly formed army. To prevent such juncture the ad-

vance guard of the I. army attacked Bazaine and in the

Aug. 14. Battle of Colombey-Nouilly and the

Aug. 16. Battle of Vionville (drawn battle), with great losses,

prevented the retreat of the French to Verdun.

Upon the arrival of the delayed corps of the I. and II. army on the next day, the French were again attacked in their excellently chosen and partially strongly fortified positions. In the

Aug. 18. Battle of Gravelotte and St. Privat (Rezonville) the Germans under command of king William I. gained an advantageous position after eight hours' hot fighting, in spite of the desperate resistance of the French.

Aug. 19. Retreat of the French under the guns of Metz.

The result of these three bloody battles near Metz was to separate the French force into two parts, and to surround their main army in and about a fortress which was not provisioned for so large a body of troops.

1870, Aug. 19-Oct. 27. Siege of Metz.

Aug. 14-Sept. 27. Siege of Strasburg by general Von Werder.

After the battles near Metz, advance upon Châlons. MacMahon evacuated Châlons, but instead of retreating to Paris, as was expected at the German headquarters, he attempted to reach Metz and liberate Bazaine by a circuitous flank march to the northeast. Napoleon IIL accompanied the army. On learning of this manœuvre the Germans made a detour toward the right (north).

Bazaine's attempt to break through the German lines and join Mac-

Mahon frustrated by the

Aug. 31 and Sept. 1. Engagements at Noisseville.

MacMahon saw the impossibility of reaching Metz, and concentrated his forces at Sedan. The Germans (250,000) far outnumbering the French (about 140,000) decided to send a part of their

troops over the Meuse and surround the French army. This was accomplished by the

Sept. 1. Battle of Sedan.

MacMahon, wounded in the morning, gave up the command to Ducrot, who afterwards transferred it to the older general Wimpffen. The victorious advance of the Germans on all sides was not checked by the brilliant charges of the French cavalry. At three o'clock the French army was surrounded. Napoleon III. delivered his sword to William I. and acknowledged himself a prisoner. Negotiations between Von Moltke and Wimpffen, and between Napoleon III. and Bismarck. The following forenoon the

1870, Sept. 2. Capitulation of Sedan

was signed.

The entire French army prisoners of war: 39 generals, 2,300 officers, 84,000 men, 25,000 having been captured during the battle (10,000 escaped to Belgium). Napoleon III. conducted to Wilhelmshöhe.

In Paris the news of the first defeats, which had been long concealed, produced great excitement and the fall of the ministry of Ollivier (Aug. 10). *Montauban-Palikao*, the minister of war, formed a new ministry composed of ultra-Bonapartists. Falsification of war news. Paris in a state of siege. The receipt of the news of the capitulation of Sedan caused the

1870. Fall of the Empire and Proclamation of the Sept. 4. (third) Republic.

Flight of the empress Eugénie to England. Provisional government of the "National defense." Trochu (president and governor of Paris), Favre (foreign affairs), Gambetta (interior), Crémieux (justice), Simon (religion and education), Leflô (war), Fourichon (navy).

Sept. 4-16. March of the German armies upon Paris.

Defenses of Paris: continuous line of bastions and trenches, surrounding the suburbs; around this on the inside a belt railroad; sixteen detached forts, two of which, Mont Valérien in the west and St. Denis in the north, were actual fortresses, all connected by continuous entrenchments and liberally provided with heavy artillery and military stores. Including the sailors and garrison, about 85,000 veterans; with the mobilized guards from the provinces, the guard mobile and national guard of Paris, over 300,000 men. Extensive accumulation of provisions.

The negotiations between Bismarck and Favre leading to no result (refusal of any cession of territory), the great city was invested by the IV. army on the north and east, by the III. army on the S. and W. Headquarters at Versailles.

1870, Sept. 19-1871, Jan. 28. Siege of Paris.

After the capitulation of Sedan the whole war was a struggle for Paris. Excepting the conquest of Alsace and German Lorraine,

¹ The IV. army was formed, after Gravelotte, from corps of the I. and II.

which Germany had regarded as the prize of victory, from the commencement of the war, all the military operations of the Germans had the object of preserving the positions and the lines of connection of the armies about Paris, and of preventing any attempt to raise the siege; the raising of the siege was, on the contrary, the object of all the French operations.

1870. In consequence of the withdrawal of the French garrison Sept. 20. from Rome, capture of that city by the Italian army and abolition of the secular power of the Pope.

Sept. 23. Capture of Toul.

Sept. 27. Capitulation of Strasburg.

The delegation of the French government in Tours, since Oct. 9, under the dictatorship of Gambetta, who had left Paris in a balloon, formed two armies for the relief of Paris: a. army of the Loire (not 30,000); b. northern army. The former defeated by the Bavarian general Von der Tann in the

1870, Oct. 10. Engagement at Artenay. Occupation of Orléans.

While Gambetta with the greatest energy was strengthening and arming forces for relief, Bazaine, who, as leader of the largest regular army in France, had thought to play a political rôle, by means of negotiations, was forced, after several unsuccessful sorties, to the

1870, Oct. 27. Capitulation of Metz.

(3 marshals, 3,000 officers, 173,000 men, 500 field artillery, 800 fortress cannon.) A part of the besieging army was sent to reinforce the armies before Paris; a part was dispatched under *Manteuffel* against the French army of the north; the largest part, under prince *Frederic Charles*, was sent against the army of the Loire.

Nov. 28. Defeat of the army of the Loire at Beaune la Rolande (by prince Frederic Charles), whereby the purpose of the French commander to force his passage to Paris was frus-

trated.

Nov. 27. Defeat of the army of the north at Amiens by Man-

teuffel.

Nov. 30. At Paris, sortie under Trochu and Ducrot, in cooperation with the intended advance of the Loire army. Storm and capture of *Champigny* and *Brie*. Successful defense of *Vil*liers and *Cœuily* by Würtemberg troops. Further French advance was checked, but they kept *Brie*. After great losses in the fight and through cold the French troops returned to Paris (Dec. 3).

Dec. 2-4. Battle of Orléans,

the name given to a number of engagements in which the Germans defeated the army of the Loire, with the following results: 1. Capture of the strong French entrenchments on the right bank of the Loire, and re-occupation of Orléans. 2. Separation of the army of the Loire into two parts. Flight of the delegation of the government to Bordeaux (Dec. 9).

The larger part of the Loire army driven behind Vendôme; Frederic Charles, at Orléans, covered the besieging armies be-

fore Paris from the south.

Dec. 27. Opening of the bombardment of the forts of Paris, after the transportation of heavy artillery and munitions had been accomplished with the greatest difficulty. Bombardment of the city, Jan. 8, 1871.

1871, Jan. 12. Battle of Le Mans.

Defeat of Chanzy by Frederic Charles. The French army almost annihilated.

Jan. 10.-13. Sortie from Paris against Meudon and Clamart, and one

against Le Bourget repulsed.

In the south, Bourbaki with 140,000 men forced von Werder, who was besieging Belfort, without giving up the siege, to take up a favorable position along the Lisaine by a masterly retreat. In the three days

Jan. 15–17. Battle of Belfort,

Von Werder successfully defended his position, and forced Bourbaki to retreat.

Jan. 18. Renewal of the title and office of German Emperor in the palace of Louis XIV. at Versailles, all the sovereign princes and the three free cities having offered the crown to king William I.

Jan. 19. Last great sortie from Paris, with 100,000 men, under Trochu, repulsed after severe fighting. On the same day,

Jan. 19. Battle of St. Quentin,

in which general Von Göben completely defeated and scattered the French army of the north. In the south Manteuffel forced the French to take refuge in the neutral territory of Switzerland, where they were disarmed.

1871, Jan. 28. Capitulation of Paris by the

convention of Versailles: 1. surrender of all the forts with munitions of war, disarmament of the city wall; 2. all French soldiers in Paris considered as prisoners of war, with exception of 12,000 men, which, with the national guard, preserved order; the French officials to provision the city; 3. the city of Paris paid 200 million francs; 4. truce (excepting the departments of Doubs, Jura, and Côte d'or) for three weeks, for the purpose of allowing a free election for a national assembly, which was to meet in Bordeaux, and decide between peace and war.

Gambetta's resistance to this agreement was soon broken; his resignation (Feb. 6). Elections throughout France (Feb. 8). The national assembly formed in Bordeaux (Feb. 12). Truce prolonged to 24th Feb., and afterwards to March 3. Thiers, elected head of the executive department, conducted the negotiations with Bismarck which resulted in the

Feb. 26. Preliminaries of peace at Versailles.

1. France ceded to the German Empire: Alsace (except Belfort and territory) and German Lorraine, with Metz and Diedenhofen (Thionville), in all 4,700 square miles, with one and a half million inhabitants; 2. France agreed to pay five milliards of francs for indemnification in three years, which were secured by an occupation of French territory.

March 1. Entrance of 30,000 German troops into Paris (additional article), and temporary occupation of a small part of the city; evacuated again on March 3d. The preliminaries of peace were ratified, and the details settled in the definitive

1871, May 10. Peace of Frankfort on Main.

The results of the war were: 1. destruction of the military power of France; 2. acquisition of a secure military boundary for Germany on the west; 3. the realization of the political unity of the German nation.

March 21-June 15. First imperial Parliament

of the new German federal state (Bundestaat), which on April 14 almost unanimously adopted the following constitution for the empire: presidency hereditarily connected with the crown of Prussia, whose king bore the title of German emperor, and represented the empire in international relations, declared war and peace (with the consent of the Bundesrath), concluded alliances, and had the chief command of the army and navy. The representatives of the 25 governments formed the federal council (Bundesrath) under the presidency of the chancellor of the empire (the first: prince Bismarck). (In all, 58 votes: Prussia 17, Bavaria 6, Saxony and Würtemberg each 4, Baden and Hesse each 3, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Brunswick each 2, the rest each 1.) The representatives of the people formed the imperial parliament (Reichstag), consisting of 382 members, chosen by direct manhood suffrage. Centralized military system; universal compulsory service (3 years in standing army, 4 years in reserve, 5 years in the Landwehr), uniform postal and telegraph service, uniform system of coinage, weights and measures.

The new German empire comprised 216,770 sq. miles, and more

than 41,000,000 inhabitants.

1871, July 1. Rome became seat of the government and capital of Italy, now completely united under the sceptre of Victor Emmanuel (guarantee for the Pope).

Sept. Opening of the Mt. Cenis tunnel across the Alps (begun 1859; 7.6 miles long).

1872, June 29. New agreement between Germany and France, which fixed the payment of the fourth milliard for March 1, 1874; the fifth, March 1, 1875; and permitted the substitution of a financial security for this last milliard, for the occupation of French territory.

1873, Jan. 9. Death of Napoleon III. in Chiselhurst (England).

Feb. Amadeus I. resigned the Spanish crown. Spain a republic. Anarchy. Civil war against the Federalists in Cartagena (captured 1874), and against Don Carlos in the north.

July-Sept. The German troops, after an anticipation of the indem-

nity, leave the French territory.

In Italy, in Switzerland, and in Prussia, struggle between the state and the Roman catholic hierarchy. In Italy, dissolution of all monasteries in Rome and the former papal states (May, 1873). In Switzerland, complete rupture with the Roman chair and establishment

of a catholic clergy elected by the people. In Prussia, in consequence of the May laws (afterwards extended), which the catholic clergy openly resisted, numerous arrests and removals of ecclesiastics. This contest led to the

1874. Introduction of compulsory civil marriage and the civil Oct. 1. registration of births and deaths, which afterwards became an imperial law (Jan. 1, 1876).

Oct. International Postal Congress in Bern.

The regulations agreed upon went into force July 1, 1875 (for France, Jan. 1, 1876).

Dec. 29-31. Military "pronunciamientos" for Alfonso, prince of Asturia, son of queen Isabella, led to the

1875, Jan. Restoration of monarchy in Spain.

1875—x. Alfonso XII., king of Spain. In the north, in spite of some successes of the royal troops, the civil war continued against Don Carlos, whom the new king declared to be an usurper.

1875. Revolt against Turkish government in Herzegovina, sup-

July. ported by Montenegro and Servia.

March. End of the civil war in Spain. Don Carlos was obliged to

leave the country, and went to England.

May. The Turks proved unable to suppress the revolt in Herzegovina. Murder of the German and French consuls in Salonica.
The three northern great powers invited the other three to
join in making a common representation to the Porte (memorandum of Berlin). Great Britain refused to join. Before the
memorandum could be presented a

May 29. Palace Revolution occurred in Constantinople. Deposition of the Sultan Abdul-Aziz, who died shortly afterwards.

Murad V. succeeded.

1876, July. Servia (prince Milan) and Montenegro (prince

Nikita) declared war upon the Porte.

A revolt which had broken out in Bulgaria bloodily suppressed by the Turks. The Turkish troops and the Turkish militia exercised shameful cruelties, which produced the greatest indignation throughout Europe, particularly in Russia, thereby giving the Russian government a welcome excuse to proclaim itself the protector of the oppressed Christians, and especially of the Slavonic population in Turkey. Military preparations in Russia.

Meanwhile the war was waged unsuccessfully by Servia, in spite of the open Russian assistance, and the presence of Russian volunteers in the Servian army, which obtained a Russian commander in **Tsher**najeff, while the **Montenegrins** were several times victorious.

1876. New, bloodless palace revolution in Constantinople. Murad Aug. V., who suffered from an incurable mental disorder, deposed.

He was succeeded by his brother, Abdul Hamid II. The Turkish army crossed the Servian frontier, and was prevented from marching further only by an ultimatum of the Russian government. The Porte agreed to a truce for two months at first, and afterward for six months.

Russia being unable to induce any other power to join her in an

armed interference with Turkey, and being herself unprepared for war and hindered by the winter season, diplomatic negotiations were prolonged. Finally a conference of ambassadors of all the great powers was arranged to meet in Constantinople.

Dec. 24. Meeting of the conference. Promulgation of a constitution for the whole Ottoman empire, which gave the Christians equal rights with Muhammedans and which the Porte hoped would make unnecessary any special provisions in favor of his Christian subjects to be greenested by the powers

jects, to be guaranteed by the powers.

1877. The guarantees which were still demanded by the conference in spite of the Turkish constitution, but which had been gradually reduced in extent, were rejected by the Porte, after consultation with an imperial council summoned for the occasion. The ambassadors of all the great powers left Constantinople.

Peace concluded between the Porte and Servia on the basis of the

status quo ante bellum. Montenegro continued in arms.

After further negotiations with the European powers, which had no result, and after completion of its preparations, the Russian government concluded to take up arms alone against Turkey, making a formal declaration that it had no conquests in view.

1877, April-1878, March. Turco-Russian War.

A. Seat of war in Europe: A Russian army under the grand duke Nicholas crossed the *Pruth*, an understanding with Roumelia having been previously reached, and advanced to the Danube, which was first crossed June 22 by a corps under *Zimmermann*, which occupied the *Dobrudsha*; the main army, which Alexander II. had meanwhile joined, forced the

1877. Passage of the Danube at Shistova.

June 27. A flying corps under Gurko crossed the Balkan by an unguarded pass, and drove the Turkish garrison from the important Shipka Pass, by an attack from the south (July 17–19), while one division of the main army, under the crown prince, fronted east and by hard fighting, prolonged for months about the rivers Jantra and Lom, held in check the Turkish army under Abdul Kerim (afterwards under Mehemed Ali, and finally under Suleiman).

The other division of the Russian army captured Nicopolis (July 15), but suffered repeated repulses with heavy loss before Plevna (S. W. from Nicopolis), where Osman Pasha had collected Turkish troops and thrown up strong fortifications (July 20 and 30), and was

forced to wait for reinforcements.

Meantime Suleiman Pasha attempted in vain to storm the Shipka Pass from the south with superior numbers (Aug. 23, Sept. 17). He was now appointed commander of the Turkish army in the east on the Lom, where his troops had been sadly missed.

Arrival of Roumanian troops and Russian reinforcements before Plevna. After the failure of an attempted storm (Sept. 7-12), a reg-

ular siege was undertaken (gen. Totleben), and

Dec. 10. Plevna captured. Osman Pasha, with 44,000 men, obliged to surrender after a futile attempt to break through the Russian lines. Return of the Roumanians to their country, of Alexander

II. to St. Petersburg. Servia (Dec. 14) declared war upon the Porte anew.

Dec.—Jan. A Russian division under Gurko crossed the western Balkans and occupied Sophia; a second under Radetzki and Skobeleff poured through the Shipka Pass. Both divisions, in conjunction with the portions of the eastern army which had also crossed the Balkans, advanced by way of Philippopolis (victory of Gurko over remnants of the Turkish army, Jan. 16 and 17, 1878) and Adrianople

(occupied Jan. 20), close upon Constantinople.

B. Seat of war in Asia (Russian commander-in-chief grand prince Michael). While the operations of a Russian division against Batoum, as well as an expedition of the Turkish fleet to the Caucasian coasts, were without result, the main column of the Russian army (Loris-Melikoff), forced its way to Kars, which it invested (May, 1877). Two other divisions occupied Ardaghan and Bajasid. The reverses suffered from Mukhtar Pasha, who advanced to the relief of Kars from Erzeroum (June), compelled the Russians to retreat across the frontier, abandoning almost all their conquests.

In October the Russians advanced again, and after the

1877. Storm of Kars

Nov. 8. pushed on victoriously to Erzeroum.

The success of the Russian arms created lively apprehensions in the west, particularly in *England*, to whom *Turkey* appealed for mediation. Angry negotiations between England and Russia. Meanwhile the Porte was obliged to ask for peace directly of Russia, which in the

1878. Agreement of Adrianople

Jan. 31. granted a preliminary truce, and sketched the plan of a future peace.

1878, Feb. 1. Greece sent her troops into Thessaly, but was induced

to withdraw them after a few days.

After the Russians had drawn their lines closer and closer about Constantinople and had occupied Erzeroum in Armenia, and a part of the English fleet which was lying before the Dardanelles had entered the Sea of Marmora, the

March 3. Peace of San Stefano (near Constantinople) was concluded between Russia and Turkey: 1. Montenegro and Servia received considerable additions from Turkish territory, and were recognized as independent; likewise, Roumania. 2. Bulgaria, i. e. the larger part of ancient Mæsia, Thrace, and Macedonia (boundaries: Danube, the Black Sea and Ægean Sea, Albania and Servia) remained tributary to the Porte, but received a Christian prince, separate administration and militia; a Russian commissary with 50,000 men was to remain two years in the country. 3. The Porte was to introduce certain reforms in the small portion of his European possessions which remained to him. 4. Turkey paid Russia 300 million rubles, and ceded large parts of Armenia in Asia and the Dobrudsha in Europe, Russia agreeing to give the latter to Roumania in return for the part of Bessarabia (p. 501) which she had ceded in 1856.

This peace aroused great opposition in the west, especially in England, which showed herself ready to go to war with Russia in case the latter insisted on the execution of the above conditions. Austria also began to arm.

June 4. The Porte concluded a treaty with England (at first secret), wherein the latter undertook to protect Turkey in Asia against Russian conquest. The Porte, however, promised to introduce reforms in these parts, and gave up the island of Cyprus to England (Cyprus occupied July 11).

Germany having mediated between Russia and England, to prevent war, and three powers having come to a preliminary understanding,

the

1878, June 13-July 13. Congress of Berlin

met under the presidency of prince Bismarck.

Principal conditions: 1. Montenegro, Servia, Roumania, became independent, but the cessions to be made to the two former states were somewhat reduced, while the territory which Roumania was to receive in exchange for Bessarabia was somewhat enlarged. 2. The principality of Bulgaria was limited to the country between the Danube and the Balkans, including, however, Sophia and its territory. (An assembly of notables elected prince Alexander of Battenberg (Hesse), a nephew of the Russian emperor, April, 1879.) southern portion of Bulgaria, with its boundaries considerably narrowed toward the south and west, was left under the immediate rule of the sultans, with the title Province of East Roumelia, but received a separate militia, and administration under a Christian governor-general; only in specified cases could it be occupied by regular Turkish troops. 4. The Russian troops were to evacuate East Roumelia and Bulgaria inside of nine months, Roumania inside of a year. 5. The Porte ceded to Austria the military occupation and administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina, as well as the military occupation of the Sandshak of Novi Bazar. 6. The Porte was advised to cede a part of Epirus and Thessaly to Greece. 7. Russia received in Asia Batoum (as a free harbor), Kars, Ardaghan, and some border territories. 8. In Turkey, and all the states which had been separated from her, there should be political equality of all confessions.

1878. Death of Victor Emmanuel, king of Italy (p. 503). Jan. 9. He was succeeded by his son, Umberto (Humbert) I.

Feb. 7. Death of pope Pius IX. He was succeeded by Leo XIII. (Pecci).

May 11 and June 2. Attempted assassination of the German emperor William I., who at the second attempt was somewhat dangerously wounded. In consequence, law against the excesses of the social democrats.

1878. Entrance of the Austrians into Bosnia and Herzego-July 29. vina, where part of the inhabitants offered armed resistance until autumn (1879, occupation of the *Lim* territory).

1879. In the German empire excited discussion of changes advocated by prince Bismarck in the tariff and economical policy (new tariff, July). Attempted reconciliation with the Pope. The

Prussian minister of religion (Falk since 1872) retired; his successor, Von Puttkamer (July 14).

Russia assuming a hostile attitude, and attempting to form an al-

liance with France against Germany,

Sept. 21-24. Bismarck visited Vienna, and a defensive alliance was concluded between Prussia and Austria.

Oct. 1. The new system of jurisprudence for the entire German empire went in force (supreme court in *Leipzig*).

1880. The boldness of the Nihilists in Russia continuing to increase Feb. in spite of the severe measures of the government (three desperate attempts upon the life of Alexander II. inside of ten months), general Loris-Melikoff was clothed with a sort of dictatorial power, but endeavored to prevent the imminent dangers by concessions.

Conflict with the papacy in regard to ecclesiastical orders and new laws relating to education in *France*, and still more sharply in *Bel*-

gium (liberal ministry of Frère Orban since 1878).

In Prussia, all negotiations with the papacy proving vain, certain limitations of the existing laws relating to the church (p. 520) were introduced as an attempt to reach the desired result by political legislation.

The resolutions of the congress of Berlin had never been completely carried into execution, in part because of the resistance of the Albanian league (secretly aided by the Porte?) to the cessions made to Montenegro, and also because the negotiations relative to a surrender of territory to Greece had been without result. Hence the June 16—July 1. Conference of Berlin

was called, which delivered to the Porte certain distinct propositions in regard to these questions (*Thessaly* and *Epirus* with *Janina* to be given to Greece), which should eventually be enforced by armed interference. The Porte still delaying, a squadron of vessels of all the great powers assembled at *Ragusa* (Sept.). This demonstration produced the

Produced the Nov. Surrender of *Dulcigno* and territory to Montenegro.

1881, March 13. Alexander II. murdered in St. Petersburg. He was succeeded by his son,

1881—x. Alexander III.

Roumania made a kingdom.

March-April. Conference of ambassadors at Constantinople. The Porte decided to carry out the surrender of territory to Greece, though to a somewhat smaller extent than was indicated by the Berlin conference.

Sept. 8. Meeting of William I. of Germany and Alexander III. of

Russia at Danzig.

1882. Disturbances in southern Dalmatia, Herzegovina, and Bosnia.

Jan. Dispatch of Austrian troops to these points.

Jan. 7. Excitement created in Prussia by the publication of a royal rescript, attacking the theory of responsible ministers, and announcing that all persons in government service were expected to support the government at elections.

- 1881, Jan. 21. Passage of the electoral reform bill in Italy. Suffrage conferred on all male Italians over twenty-one years of age, who possessed either (1) a certain amount of property or (2) a certain amount of education. Adoption of the scrutin de liste; minority representation in districts returning five or more deputies.
- Feb. 11. Lectures in the Czechish (Bohemian) language established in the university of Prague.
- Feb. 21. Trial of persons accused of being concerned in the murder of the czar of Russia. In spite of some concessions to the peasants, and of the continuance of vigorous repressive measures, undaunted activity of the nihilists.
- March 6. Servia made a kingdom; prince Milan king as Milan I. March 10. Suppression of the disturbances in *Herzegovina* and southern Dalmatia by the Austrians.

Tendency in the German Reichstag and the Prussian Landtag to come to terms with Rome and the clerical party (autumn). Approaching end of the Kulturkampf.

April 10. Retirement of Gortschakoff, minister of foreign affairs in Russia; he was succeeded by De Giers; this change, regarded as an assurance of peaceful intentions, quieted the apprehensions which had been aroused by the anti-Teutonic invectives of Skobeleff in Paris and elsewhere (Skobeleff, † July 7).

May 22. Opening of the St. Gothard railroad across the Alps. (Begun 1872, tunnel 91 miles long.)

June 2. Death of Giuseppi Garibaldi (b. 1807, at Nice; conspirator in 1833; in Montevideo, in South America, 1835; defense of Rome, 1849; in North America, 1854; service against Austria, 1859, 1860; unsuccessful attempts upon Rome, 1862, 1867; participation in the Franco-Prussian war, 1870, 1871; member of the Italian chamber of deputies, 1875).

Rejection of the tobacco monopoly advocated by Bismarck, in the German Reichstag.

1882, June 21. Expiration of the Storthing in Norway. Violent royal speech rebuking the opposition. Constitutional struggle over the royal veto, and presence of ministers in the Storthing.

Sept. Anti-Jewish riots, especially at *Pressburg* (Sept. 27–30). Sept.-Nov. New elections in **Norway**. Return of an increased radical majority.

§ 8. FRANCE.

1815 - x.

1814 (1815)-1824. Louis XVIII.

First restoration, Apr. 6. Royal proclamation of a liberal constitution (charte constitutionelle), June 4, 1814: hereditary monarchy; two chambers (peers nominated by the king, lower house elected by the people); freedom of the press; religious liberty; responsible ministers; judges not removable. Return of Napoleon. The Hundred Days (Mar. 20-June 22), see page 483. Fall of Napoleon.

1815, July 8. Second restoration.

1815, Sept. 25–1818, Dec. 29. Ministry of the duke of Richelieu.

Nov. 20. Second peace of Paris (p. 485).

An ultra-royalist chamber (chambre introuvable; compare the "Cavalier" parliament of Charles II. of England, p. 378). La terreur blanche. Parties: court (Richelieu), advocating return to the old monarchy; legitimists (Decazes); doctrinaires (Guizot), advocates of constitutional monarchy with strong administration; liberals (independents, Périer, Lafayette); Bonapartists; republicans. Gravitation towards a monarchy resting on the middle classes (bourgeoisie).

Ministry of Dessoles-Decazes (1818, Dec. 29-1819, Nov.); of Decazes (1819, Nov. 10-1820, Feb.).

1820, Feb. 13. Murder of the duke of Berry, the second nephew of Louis XVIII., by Louvel. Ultra-royalist ministry. Laws restricting freedom of the press and of elections.

Sept. 29. Birth of the duke of Bordeaux, posthumous son of the duke of Berry; "Henry V.;" "Europe's child." Presentation of the castle of *Chambord* by national subscription.

1821, May 5. Death of Napoleon I. at St. Helena.

1821, Dec. 13-1828, Jan. 4. Ministry of Villèle (ultra-royalist).

1823. French intervention in Spain; capture of *Madrid* and *Cadiz*; liberation of Ferdinand VII., by the duke of Angoulême. Cruel reaction. Numerous executions (Riego). Septennial election law (violation of the charter). New chamber of ultra-royalists (chambre retrouvée, 1824).

1824, Sept. 16. Death of Louis XVIII.

1824-1830. Charles X.

1825, March. Grant of a milliard (\$200,000,000) to returned refugees as compensation for their confiscated estates.¹

Growth of the liberal party: Collaud, Constant, Périer, Broglie, Chateaubriand. Outery against the Jesuits.

1827, April 30. National guard disbanded.

1828, Jan. Fall of the Villele ministry in consequence of the return of a liberal majority at the election.

1828, Jan. 4-1829, Aug. 8. Martignac ministry ("too liberal for the royalists, too reactionary for the liberals").

1829, Aug.-1830, July. Polignac ministry; reactionary, ultra-royalist. "No more concessions!"

1830, March 18. Address of the 221, in reply to the king's speech; vote of want of confidence. Dissolution May 16.

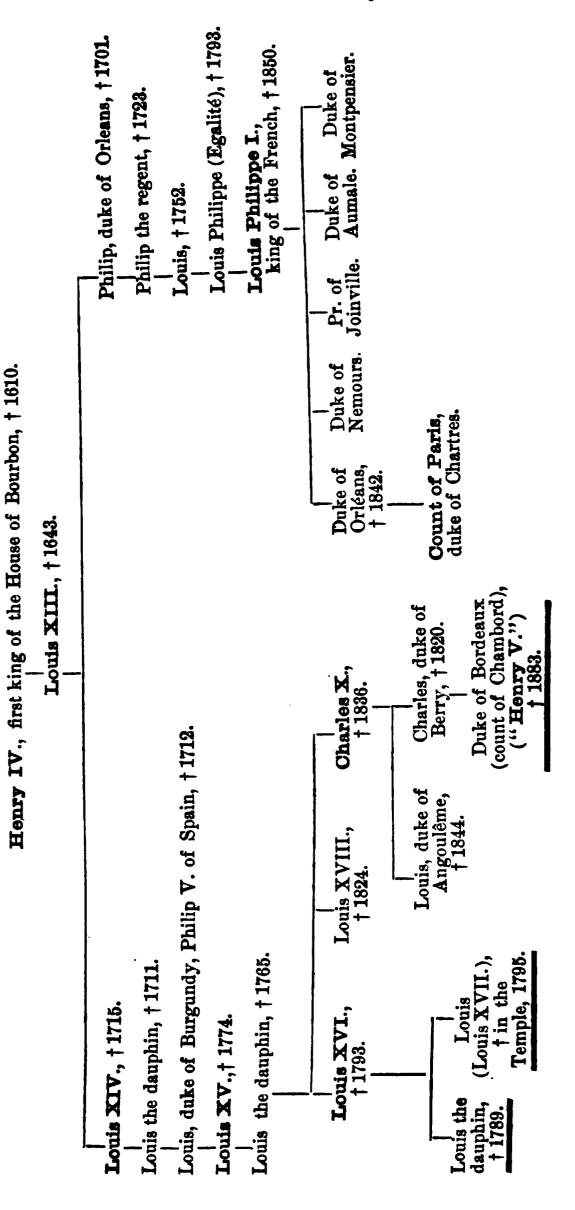
July 5. Capture of Algiers by the French.

Reasons for the expedition: 1. An insult offered the French ambassadors by the *Dey*, *Husseyn*. 2. The desire of the French government to quiet the agitation and dissatisfaction which prevailed in France, by some outside success.

Algeria (Afrique Française) subjugated by a tedious war with the Arabs and Kabyls, constantly breaking out anew. Abdel-Kader (1827, captured by Lamoricière and the duke of Aumale, fourth son of

¹ The ruined cavaliers in England got \$3,000,000 in 1661.

HOUSE OF BOURBON IN THE OLDER AND YOUNGER (ORLEANS) LINE.



Louis Philippe; 1852, released and sent to Asia Minor by Louis Napoleon).

New elections. Return of an increased liberal majority; 202 of

the 221 reëlected ("aide toi").

1830, July 27-29. The July Revolution. The Three Days of July. The Great Week.

Cause: publication of the three (five) ordinances on July 26, professedly founded on article 14. 1. The recent elections declared illegal. 2. The electoral system arbitrarily changed so as to restrict the suffrage to rich land-owners. 3. Prohibition of the publication of newspapers and pamphlets without a royal permit. This violation of the charter produced a revolt in Paris July 27. Protests (Thiers, Mignet). Barricade fights. July 28, rising of the bourgeoisie; imperfect military preparations, bad leadership and care of the troops, who in part deserted, resulted in the victory of the populace. Capture of the Hôtel de Ville. July 29, capture of the Louvre. Retreat of the troops. Provisional government: Lafitte, Périer, Barrot. Lafayette commander of the national guard. Futile repeal of the ordinances. Duke of Orléans lieutenant general of France ("the charter henceforward to be a reality").

Charles X. († in Görz, in Styria, 1836), and his son, the duke of Angoulême, abdicated in favor of their grandson and nephew, the duke of Bordeaux (who subsequently called himself count of Chambord, p. 527). The claims of this pretender being set aside, the younger line of Bourbon (Orléans, see genealogical table, p. 528) was raised to the

throne in the person of

1830-1848. Louis Philippe, the king of the French (le roi bourgeoise; monarchy of July). Alteration of the charter in a liberal spirit. Abolition of art. 14. Prohibition of the censure. The king to share the initiative with the chamber. Ministry of Broglie, Guizot, Lafayette (1830, Aug. 11-Nov.); of Lafitte (1830, Nov. 2-1831, March 13); of Casimir Perier (1831, Mar. 13-1832, May). Trial and condemnation of four ex-ministers of Charles X.

Rebellion of the duchess of Berry (1832).

1832, Oct. 11–1836, Feb. Ministry of Thiers, Guizot, Broglie.

Insurrection in Lyons (1834, April).

1835, July 28. Fieschi's infernal machine.

By this attempt upon the life of Louis P lippe twelve persons were killed and forty wounded. It was followed by the adoption of laws limiting the freedom of the press (laws of September). Retirement of Guizot, Broglie (doctrinaires); ministry of Feb. 22, 1836 (Thiers, progressionists). Ministry of Sept. 6 (Molé, Guizot; Thiers out).

1836, Oct. 30. Louis Napoleon (nephew of Napoleon I., see the genealogical table, p. 466) made an adventurous attempt to get himself proclaimed emperor at Strasburg. He was captured without difficulty, his accomplices brought to trial, he himself sent to America by the French government on a ship of war (with an annuity of 15,000 francs from Louis Philippe's privy purse).

¹ Guizot, Mémoires, vol. iv. chap. 24.

Ministry of April 15 (1837), Molé without Guizot. Union of Guizot and Thiers in opposition. Republican insurrection in Paris (May 12, 1839). Ministry of Soult (1839, May 12–1840, Mar. 1), without Guizot, Thiers, Odellon-Barrot. Ministry of Thiers (1840, Mar. 1-Oct. 29). Diplomatic complications consequent on the revolt of Mehemet Ali (p. 491).

1840. Second adventurous attempt of Louis Napoleon.

He sailed from Margate with only fifty adherents to Bologne, where he was captured by the national guard, tried by the court of peers, and condemned to imprisonment for life (escaped from Ham

under the name and in the dress of a mason, Badinguet, 1846).

The remains of Napoleon I., brought from St. Helena by the prince of Joinville, the third son of Louis Philippe, were solemnly entombed under the dome of the *Invalides* at Paris (1840, Dec. 15). Fortification of Paris. Quadruple treaty of London (1840, July 15); anger of France. Fall of *Thicrs*.

1840, Oct. 29–1848, Feb. 24. Ministry of Soult and Guizot.

Death of the duke of Orléans (1842, July 13). Trouble with England: Tahiti (Pritchard); Spanish marriages (1843-44). Demand for electoral reform and exclusion of place-men from the chamber of deputies rejected by the government (pensée immuable). During this reign development of the parties: Legitimists (count of Chambord); Orléanists; Bonapartists; Republicans.

1848, Feb. 22-24. The Revolution of February.

Barricade fights with the troops, conducted principally by members of the secret (socialistic) societies, assisted by a section of the national guard, which was dissatisfied with the reactionary policy of the government. Partial defection of the troops. Guizot resigned (Feb. 23). Louis Philippe abdicated in favor of his grandson, the Count of Paris, son of the duke of Orléans († 1842) and the princess Helena of Mecklenburg. Duchess of Orléans in the chamber of deputies. (L'émeute était devenue une révolution.) Provisional government at the Hôtel de Ville (Dupont de l'Eure, Lamartine Ledru Rollin, Marie, Crémieux, Arago, Garnier-Pagès, the elder). Republic proclaimed (Feb. 24), to the disagreeable surprise of the bourgeoisie of Paris. The socialist Louis Blanc became the head of a commission of laborers (afterwards called ministry of progress) with a view to the "organization of labor," but accomplished nothing practical. Call of a national assembly at Paris to adopt a constitution for the new democratic republic. Establishment of costly public workshops (ateliers nationaux) and recognition of the "right to work." 1 Establishment of the garde mobile.

1848-1851 (1852). France (for the second time) a republic.

June 23-26. Terrible insurrection (the days of June) in Paris in consequence of the closing of the ateliers. Bloody fights in the

1 It is claimed that Louis Blanc was deceived by the government, who wished his support, but distrusted his theories. The workshops, predestined to failure, were neither conceived nor carried on in accordance with the design of their projector. See Ely, French and German Socialism in Modern Times, p. 113, where authorities are quoted.

streets. Murder of archbishop Affre and of general Bréa. General Cavaignac clothed with dictatorial power. The continued efforts of the troops and the national guard subdued the insurrection of the laborers. Nov. 4, constitution of 1848.

Dec. 20. Proclamation of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte as president of the republic (5,327,345 to 1,879,298 votes).

1849, Apr.-Aug. Expedition to Rome.

Legislative assembly (one house) with a monarchical majority. Death of Louis Philippe at Claremont (1850, Aug. 26).

1851, Dec. 2. Coup d'État of Louis Napoleon, who, in complicity with St. Arnaud, Maupas, Morny, etc., caused the leaders of the republicans and Orléanists (Cavaignac, Charras, Changarnier, Lamoricière, Bedeau, Thiers, Victor Hugo, and others) to be surprised in their dwellings at night and imprisoned, dissolved the (second) national assembly (1849–1851), annulled the constitution which he had sworn to defend, crushed (with some shedding of blood) the revolt which broke out in the streets of Paris on Dec. 3 and 4 in consequence of these measures, and summoned the whole people to a general election (plébescite). This resulted in the election of Dec. 20, 21. Louis Napoleon as president for ten years

by a majority, it was asserted, of more than six million votes. The president was clothed with monarchical power, and permitted to issue a constitution. By a decree of Jan. 9, 1852, the president arbitrarily banished his most important opponents; by a decree of Jan. 14 he established a constitution like that of the first empire (sénat, corps législatif, see p. 464). A third decree confiscated the appanages of the house of Orléans, and compelled the members of this house to sell their whole private property in land in France within a year. Freedom of the press restricted.

1852, Dec. 2-1870. Napoleon III., emperor of the French. Proclaimed by a senatus consultum, Nov. 7, and ratified by a plébescite (Nov. 21, 22), with 7,824,189 votes against 253,145. Napoleon recognized by all European powers. Assertions of peaceful intentions with regard to Europe, particularly in an address at Bordeaux ("L'Empire c'est la paix"). Napoleon III. married (Jan. 29, 1853) the Spaniard Eugénie Montijo, countess of Téba. Birth of the prince imperial, 1856, Mar. 16.

1854-1856. Crimean war (p. 499) ended by the

1856, May 30. Peace of Paris (p. 501). The empire at its height of power and respect.

1857. French expedition to China (p. 501).

1858, Jan. 14. Orsini's attempt upon the life of Napoleon III. Bombs. Orsini, under sentence of death, urged Napoleon to undertake the liberation of Italy (Orsini's "Testament," published in the Moniteur). Loi de sûreté générale, allowing the government to arrest and banish, in certain cases, without trial (Feb. 19). Meeting of Napoleon III. and the Sardinian minister Cavour. Marriage of the prince Napoleon Bonaparte (geneal. table, p. 466) with Clotilde, daughter of Victor Emmanuel.

1839. Austro-Sardinian war.

1869, Nov. 24. Decree allowing the address to the throne, and creating ministers without portfolios.

1861. Debates permitted to be inserted in full in the Journal Officiel.

1861-1867. Mexican expedition (p. 503).

1867. Great Exposition at Paris.

1867. Luxembourg question (p. 512).

1867. Expedition to Rome (p. 511).

1869, May. New elections; for the first time during the second empire active participation of the parties and a large vote. The government received a good majority. In *Paris* and *Lyons*, victory of the ultra-radical party.

1870, Jan. 2. Ministry Ollivier. Repeal of the loi de sûreté. Alteration of the constitution by senatus consultum and plébiscite, Apr. 20, May 8. (5,679,000 majority for the government, large vote of no in the army.)

1870-1871. Franco-German war, p. 513 fol.

1871 — x. France (for the third time) a Republic.

During the siege of Paris the numerous socialist party had made several attempts to seize the supreme power, which had been frustrated by the troops and the national guard. After the capitulation the workingmen had, under various pretexts, got possession of several hundred cannon, and converted the northeastern part of the city (Montmartre and Belleville) almost into fortresses. The attempt of general Vinay, commander of the city, to repossess himself of these arms led to a general

1871, March 18. Uprising of the Commune (murder of generals Lecomte and Thomas), and, after the defection of several regi-

ments, to the

March 28-May 22. Rule of the Socialistic Commune

(Blanqui, Pyat, Flourens, Delescluze, Cluseret, Rossel, etc.). Seat of the regular government, Versailles. The comité des internationalistes held a reign of terror in Paris. Spoliation of the churches. Several million "advances" exacted from the Bank for the payment of the armed mob called the National Guard, whose ranks were swollen by socialists of all nations. The march upon Versailles ended in a shameful retreat, the insurgents being fired upon from Mont Valérien. Arrest of archbishop Darboy and other "hostages," afterwards murdered. Proclamation resolving France into a number of municipal republics.

April 6-May 22. Second siege of Paris

by marshal *MacMahon*, commander of the troops of the national assembly, on the south and west sides, the German troops preserving a strict neutrality in the forts which they occupied on the northeast.

Bombardment of the southern forts, and the city itself, by the Versailles troops from the parallels which the Germans had constructed. Meantime socialistic violence in Paris. Destruction of the house of Thiers, and overthrow of the Colonne Vendôme, May 16, 1871 (resected 1874).

May 21. The Versailles troops entered the city through the Porte St. Cloud, of whose unguarded condition they were apprised by a Parisian. Bloody contest against barricades (May 21-28) in the heart of Paris. The commune caused the principal buildings of Paristo be set on fire. (The Tuileries, a part of the Palais Royal, the library of the Louvre, the whole of the Hôtel de Ville, the palace of the Legion of Honor, the building of the ministry of finance, etc., actually destroyed.)

1871, May 28. Bloody suppression of the insurrection; executions en masse; 40,000 or 50,000 socialists captured, or afterwards arrested. The leaders court-martialed, many shot, many trans-

ported to New Caledonia.

1871, Aug. 31. Thiers elected president of the republic for the session of the national assembly.

May 10. Definitive treaty of Frankfort (p. 520).

1873, Jan. 9. Death of Napoleon III. at Chiselhurst, in England.

May 24. Thiers forced to resign by a parliamentary coalition of the monarchical parties (*Legitimists*, *Orléanists*, *Bonapartists*). Marshal MacMahon elected president by the national assembly.

Nov. 19. After the attempt at a restoration of the monarchy under Henry V. (count of Chambord) had failed, marshal Mac-Mahon was entrusted with the regency for seven years (septennat) under the title "President of the Republic."

1873, Oct.-Dec. Trial of Bazaine in the Trianon at Versailles before a court-martial, the duke of Aumale (fourth son of Louis Philippe) presiding. Bazaine was condemned to degradation and death, but the sentence was remitted to twenty years' imprisonment. Bazaine conveyed to the island of Ste. Marguerite, near Cannes, whence he escaped in the summer of 1874.

1875, Feb. After a long struggle between the parties in the national assembly a republican constitution was finally agreed

upon.

The legislative power was exercised by two chambers: the chamber of deputies, which was elected by direct elections and manhood suffrage for four years, and the senate (300 senators: 75 for life, elected by the national assembly, and afterwards by the senate itself; and 225 elected for nine years by electoral colleges, composed of deputies, councils of the departments and districts, and delegates of the communes). The executive power was entrusted to a president, who, after the expiration of the septennat (above), was to be elected by the senate and chamber of deputies united in a national assembly for this purpose, for seven years, and at the expiration of his term of office should be again eligible. The president, who governed by a responsible ministry, exercised almost all the rights of a constitutional monarchy, but could be impeached by the chamber of deputies before the senate for high treason.

1875, Dec. After the adoption of a new electoral law (scrutin 1 d'ar-

¹ By the scrutin d'arrondissement, the voters in each district voted for one delegate only; by the scrutin de liste (fivored by Gambetta), the voters of each department voted for the whole list of delegates from that department. — Müller, Political History of Recent Times.

rondissement), the national assembly, which had been in ses-

sion since 1871, separated.

The new elections resulted in a senate composed **1876**, Jan., Feb. half of republicans and half of the three monarchical parties, while in the chamber of deputies the republicans had a decisive majority. Dufaure ministry (March), Simon ministry (Dec.).

- 1877, May 16. Simon ministry displaced by the arbitrary act of MacMahon ("coup d'état"). Broglie ministry. Protest of 363 members of the lower house against the action of the president.
- Death of **Thiers** (1797–1877). Sept. 4.
- 1877, Oct. New elections. Maintenance of the republic. In spite of the return of a republican majority, MacMahon formed a royalist ministry (Rochebouet). As the house refused to deal with such a ministry, formation of the ministry Dufaure (republican).

International Exhibition.

- 1879, Jan. 16. Pardon of over 2,000 communists.

 1879, Jan. 30. MacMahon, involved in inextricable conflict with the chamber of deputies, resigned his office, and was succeeded by Grévy.
- 1879, Jan. 30–x. Jules Grevy president of the republic. Gambetta succeeded him as speaker of the house. Ministry of Waddington. Amnesty for communists. Removal of the legislature from Versailles to Paris. Secularization of education; debate and agitation over the bill introduced by Jules Ferry, minister of public instruction, limiting the influence of religious orders in education (§ 7: total exclusion of unauthorized religious orders from giving instruction). Ministry of Freycinet (1879, Dec.).

1879, June 1. Death of prince Louis Napoleon in South Africa. spite of the nomination in his will of prince Victor, son of Jerome (son of the king of Westphalia), the latter ("Plon-Plon") was generally recognized by the Bonapartists.

1880, Mar. 30. Proclamation disbanding the order of Jesuits.

June. General amnesty for convicted communists. (Rochefort.)

Ministry of Jules Ferry.

Expulsion of unauthorized orders from their religious houses. Nov.

Expedition to Tunis, ostensibly to punish marauding border 1881. tribes, and to uphold the claims of the Société Marseillaise to certain lands in Tunis, resulting in an attempt to establish a protectorate over Tunis. Complications with Great Britain, Italy, Spain.

Ministry of Gambetta (Foreign Affairs); M. Paul Bert,

minister of public worship.

1882, Jan. 30. Ministry of M. Freycinet (Foreign Affairs); Leon Say (Finance); Jules Ferry (Public Instruction). Gambetta, having been defeated on a motion to adopt the scrutin de liste, had resigned Jan 27.

Jan. Failure of the Union Générale (founded 1881). July 29. Resignation of the ministry Freycinet after defeat upon a question of supplies for protecting the Suez canal. Ministry Duclerc (Gambettist).

French claims upon Madagascar, especially to a protectorate over the northwest coast, opposed by the native Hovas, and discussed be-

tween France and England.

The French protectorate over Annam (1874) being threatened by the presence of Taiping refugees ("Black Flags," p. 462) in Tonquin, the government resolved upon energetic measures for the assertion of the rights of France.

Dec. 31. Death of Leon Gambetta (b. 1838, Oct. 30).

§ 4. GREAT BRITAIN.

1783 — x.

- 1783, Nov. Fox brought forward a bill to reform the government of India, which was thrown out in the lords. The king, thereupon, dismissed the coalition ministry, and William Pitt became
- 1783, Dec. 26–1801, March 17. First lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. He introduced an *India bill*, which was rejected, and
- 1784, March 25. Parliament was dissolved.

 May 18. The Fifth parliament of George III. (XVI.)

 Aug. 13. Pitt's India bill became law (p. 442).

1787. The first convicts sent to Australia (Botany Bay).

1788, Oct. 12. The king became insane. Fox proposed that the Prince of Wales should assume the regency as of right. Pitt, though admitting the prince's claims, insisted that the legislature had the right to make the appointment. Pending 1789, Feb. the discussion the king recovered.

1791. Representative institutions granted Canada.

- 1792, June. Fox's libel bill, which gave the jury power to render a general verdict of guilty or not guilty upon the whole matter in issue, received the royal assent.
- 1793, Jan. Alien bill. Traitorous correspondence bill.
- 1793, Feb. 1. The French republic declared war against Great Britain, etc. (p. 453).
- 1794. Spread of revolutionary principles. Suspension of the habeas corpus act.
- May. Trial of Hardy, Horne Tooke, and Thelwall, all of whom, Oct.-Dec. through the efforts of Erskine, were acquitted.

1794, Nov. Treaty with the United States (Jay's treaty, p. 548).

1795, July-Nov. Holland having joined the French against England, the latter seized the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, and other possessions of the Dutch in the East.

1796, Sept. 17. Sixth parliament of George III. (XVII.) Oct. 11. Spain declared war against England (p. 458).

- 1797, Feb. 27. Bank of England stopped specie payments.
- 1797, April 15. A mutiny broke out in the fleet at Spithead (off Portsmouth). The demands of the sailors, which were rea-

May 17. sonable, were granted and the fleet put to sea. Another and more violent mutiny broke out at the

May 22. Nore (mouth of the Thames), which was finally put down

June 30. by force and the ringleader hanged.

1797, Oct. 11. Victory of Camperdown (Duncan) puts an end to the danger of immediate invasion.

1798, Apr. 20. Habeas corpus act again suspended.

Aug. 1. Battle of the Nile (p. 460).

1799. Failure of the expedition to the Netherlands (p. 461).

1800, Dec. 16. Armed neutrality of 1780 revived (p. 412). The United Irishmen, an association of malcontents, mainly Protestants, was formed in 1791 to secure the entire separation of *Ireland* from *England*. The *French* sent more than one expedition to their aid; of these the most formidable, under

1796, Dec. Hoche, was scattered by a storm, while a smaller one

1798, Sept. 8. was defeated at Ballinamuck.

1798, June 21. The *United Irishmen* were beaten at **Vinegar Hill**, 1799. and the insurrection put down with cruel severities. These events led to the

1801, Jan. 1. Legislative Union of Great Britain with Ireland under the name of the United Kingdom. The act of union provided, among other things, that there should be one imperial parliament, to which Ireland should send four spiritual lords, sitting by rotation of sessions; twenty-eight temporal peers, elected for life by the Irish peerage; and one hundred members of the commons; and that the churches of the two countries should be united into one protestant episcopal church.

Mr. Pitt proposed to bring in a bill making certain concessions to the Roman catholics. The king being persuaded that such concessions would be a breach of the coronation oath refused

1801, Feb. 3. his consent, and Mr. Pitt resigned.

Mar. 17-1804, May 15. Addington administration. Lord Eldon, lord chancellor.

Apr. 2. Battle of Copenhagen (Nelson). Convention between Eng-June 17. land and Russia. End of the second armed neutrality (p. 463).

Apr. 19. Habeas corpus act again suspended.

1802, Nov. 16. Seventh parliament of George III. (2nd imperial).

1802, Mar. 27. Peace of Amiens (p. 464).

1803. The English ambassador (lord Whitworth), publicly insulted Mar. 13. by Napoleon.

May. War renewed between England and France (p. 465).

1803. Emmett's insurrection in Ireland, easily suppressed, but showed the deep-seated hostility of the Irish, and led to the suspension of the habeas corpus act in Ireland.

1804, May 10-1806, Jan. 23. Pitt's second ministry.

1805. Third coalition against France (p. 467). Oct. 21. Trafalgar (Nelson, p. 467).

1806, Jan. 23. Death of Pitt.

1806, Feb. 10.-1807, March 31. All the Talents: Lord Grenville, prime minister; Charles James Fox, foreign secretary, † Sept. 13; lord Erskine, lord chancellor; lord Howick (afterwards earl Grey), first lord of the admiralty.

Nov. 21. Berlin Decree (p. 469).

Dec. 15. Eighth (3d imperial) parliament of George III.

, 1807, March 23. Abolition of the slave trade in the British dominions.

> The ministry went out on the catholic question, and were succeeded by the

1807, Mar. 31.-1809, Oct. 29. duke of Portland, first lord of the treasury; Canning and Castlereagh, home and foreign secretaries; Spencer Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer.

(George Canning, b. 1770, entered parliament 1793, under secretary 1796, † 1827). (Castlereagh, afterwards marquis of Londonderry, b. 1769, † 1822.) retary 1796, † 1827).

June 22. Ninth (4th imperial) parliament of George III.

July 7-9. Treaty of Tilsit (p. 469).

Sept. 7. Second bombardment of Copenhagen (p. 470).

Jan.-Nov. Orders in Council which declared France, and all countries under her control, to be in a state of blockade.

1807, Nov. 8. Russia declared war against England.

Dec. 17. Milan decree, a supplement to the Berlin decree (p. 470).

1808, Aug. Convention of Cintra (p. 471).

1808. The failure of the Walcheren expedition sent to destroy July-Nov. the docks and shipping at Antwerp, caused a rupture between Castlereagh and Canning, both of whom resigned.

1809. Sir Arthur Wellesley (b. 1769, entered the army 1787; As-May. saye 1803; entered perliament 1806; commanded in the Peninsular War. Commander-in-chief 1842, † 1852), afterwards duke of Wellington, enters Spain, and the

1808-1814. Peninsular war was fairly begun (p. 471).

1809, Oct. 29. Death of the duke of Portland.

1809, Dec. 6-1812, May 11. Mr. Perceval first lord of the treasury.

1810, Oct. and Nov. Lines of Torres Vedras (p. 473).

Nov. The king became hopelessly insane, and

The Prince of Wales was appointed re-1811, Feb. 5. gent.

The breaking of machinery by the Luddites became so frequent that frame breaking was made a capital offense.

1812, May 11. Assassination of Perceval by Bellingham. 1812, June 8-1827, Apr. 24. Liverpool ministry: Castlereagh, foreign secretary.

1812, June 18. War with the United States ended by the treaty of Ghent, 1814, Dec. 24 (p. 551).

Nov. 24. Tenth (5th imperial) parliament of George III.

1813, June 21. Vittoria (p. 479).

1814, May 30. Peace of Paris followed by

1815, March 25. Treaty of Vienna. England gained Cape of

Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, Malta, Tobago, St. Lucia, and Mauritius. Hanover became a separate kingdom, with George III. first king, and descent to heirs male (p. 491).

1815, June 15. Waterloo (p. 484).

The English national debt had grown from less than 250 million pounds in 1793 to over 850 millions; the laboring classes found it difficult to obtain the bare necessaries of life. Consequently riots took place in the agricultural districts, while the Luddites broke out with fresh vehemence. This discontent soon assumed the form of a political movement, and, largely owing to the Weekly Political Register, edited by William Cobbett (1762–1835), the cry of parliamentary reform became popular, and Hampden clubs were formed throughout the country.

1816, Mar. 3. The habeas corpus act was suspended.

Mar. 10. The Blanket meeting at Manchester broken up by the military; lord Sidmouth's (Addington) circular letter.

Dec. Acquittal of Hone.

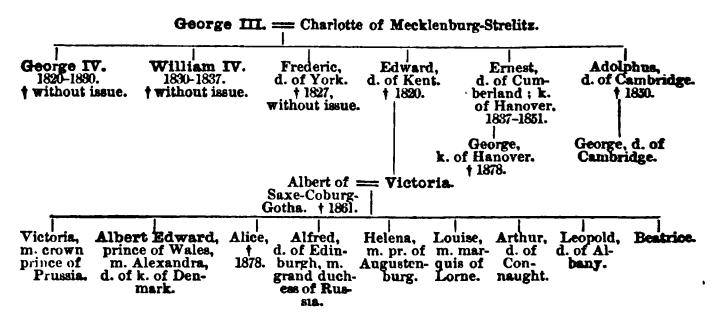
1816, July. The dey of Algiers compelled to abolish christian slavery.

1819, Jan. 14. Eleventh (6th imperial) parliament of George III.

1819, Aug. 16. A meeting of the Radicals at St. Peter's Fields, Manchester, dispersed by the military with bloodshed; hence called the Manchester Massacre, or Peterloo. In consequence of these disturbances, the Six Acts, strengthening the hands of government, were passed.

1820, Jan. 29. Death of George III. The following are some of his

descendants:—



1820-1830. George IV. (prince regent since 1811).

1320, Apr. 21. First (7th imperial) parliament of George IV. 1820. Cato street conspiracy for assassinating the king's ministers discovered.

May 1. The leader, Thistlewood, and four accomplices executed.

18_0, Aug.—Nov. The king, while prince of Wales, had been, in a manner, forced to marry his cousin. The marriage was an unhappy one, and not long after his accession ministers brought for-

ward a bill of pains and penalties to degrade and divorce the queen on charges of misconduct. In the trial of queen Caroline which followed, Mr. (afterwards lord) Brougham and Mr. (afterwards lord) Denman so shook the evidence against her, on the cross-examination (1821, July 18), that the bill was abandoned. She was, however, excluded from the coronation, and not long after died.

1821, May. Bank of England resumed specie payments (p. 535).

1822. Castlereagh (lord Londonderry) committed suicide, and was succeeded at the foreign office by George Canning. Mr. Peel home secretary.

1823. The next year *Huskisson* became president of the board of trade, and Mr. Robinson (afterwards lord Goderich) chancellor of the exchequer.

1825. Commercial panic; modification of the monopoly of the Bank of England.

1826, Nov. 14. Second (8th imperial) parliament of George IV.

1827, Aug. 8-1828, Jan. 25. Lord Goderich premier.

1827, Oct. 20. Navarino; "untoward event" (p. 489).

1828, Jan. 26–1830, Nov. 22. Duke of Wellington prime minister. Robert Peel, home secretary (b. 1788; M. P. 1809; colonial secretary 1810; † 1850).

1828, Feb. 26. Lord John Russell (b. 1792; M. P. 1813; earl Russell 1861; † 1866) moved the repeal of the corporation and test acts (p. 380), which was carried (May).

A declaration containing the words "on the true faith of a christian" was substituted for the sacramental test, thus admitting protestant discenters to office

mitting protestant dissenters to office.

1828, July 15. The restrictions on the importation of breadstuffs were modified by the adoption of the sliding scale.

The duke of Wellington and Mr. Peel became convinced of the necessity of catholic emancipation.

1829, April 13. The catholic relief act substituted a new form of oath for the oaths of supremacy, allegiance, and abjuration, and there were now no offices from which catholics were excluded, except those of regent, lord chancellor of England and Ireland, and viceroy of Ireland. The franchise in Ireland was raised from 40s. to 10l., and certain regulations were made respecting the exercise of the Roman catholic religion.

1830, June 26. Death of George IV.

1830-1837. William IV.

1830, Sept. 15. Opening of the Manchester and Liverpool railway (Rocket locomotive), † of Huskisson.

1830, Oct. 26. First (9th imperial) parliament of William IV.

When parliament opened earl Grey declared that, in his opinion, the only way to avert political convulsions was by a reform in parliament. The duke of Wellington expressed himself as opposed to reform, and being defeated on a minor question resigned Nov. 16.

1830, Nov. 24-1834, July 18. Earl Grey, prime minister. Lord Althorp, chancellor of exchequer; lord Brougham, lord chancellor; lord John Russell, paymaster-general of the forces; and lord Melbourne, home secretary.

1831, March 31. Lord John Russell introduced his reform bill. It soon became apparent that there was no prospect of passing

Apr. 22. the bill, and parliament was dissolved.

June 14. Second (10th imperial) parliament of William IV. The reform bill again introduced; passed the commons Sept. 21, but was thrown out by the lords, and riots ensued throughout the country.

1832, Mar. 19. The reform bill, with some alterations, was again passed by the commons. In the lords an amendment was carried against ministers, who resigned May 7, but resumed office May 18, the king having consented to create a sufficient number of new peers to secure the passage of the bill; but this proved unnecessary, as many tory peers refrained from voting, and the bill received the royal assent June 7.

1832. By this, the First Reform Act, 143 boroughs lost one or both members, and the seats thus obtained were given to several large towns (Manchester, Birmingham, etc.), to the larger counties, and to new boroughs. At the same time the franchise was extended. The Scotch reform act, July 17; the Irish reform act, Aug. 7. 1833, Jan. 29. Third (11th imperial) parliament of William IV. Apr. 2. The Irish coercion act.

In August the bill for the abolition of slavery throughout the British empire was passed. The sum of 20,000,000l. was

voted to the slave-owners.

1833. Renewal of the charter of the Bank of England; and of the East India Company for twenty years, but the trade with China was thrown open (p. 561).

. The question of an extension of the Irish coercion act led to

the resignation of earl Grey.

1834, July 16-Nov. 14. Lord Melbourne became premier. Lord Althorp, lord John Russell, and lord Brougham retained their places.

1834. Poor law amendment act. Local boards abolished in favor Aug. of a central board of commissioners. Poor law unions took the place of work-houses, and the system of out-door relief was in a great measure reformed.

Nov. The king dismissed the ministry, and the duke of Wellington took control of affairs until sir Robert Peel could be

summoned from Rome.

1834, Dec. 8-1835, Apr. 18. Peel's first administration. (Wellington, foreign secretary.) The majority in the commons

1834, Dec. 30. was against ministers, parliament was dissolved, and Peel issued the Tamworth manifesto.

1835, Feb. 19. Fourth (12th imperial) parliament of William IV. The conservatives, as the supporters of Peel termed them-Apr. selves, being in a minority in the commons, ministers resigned.

1835, Apr. 18-1841, Sept. 3. Second Melbourne ministry.

Palmerston, foreign secretary (b. 1784; M. P. 1807; † Oct. 18, 1865); lord John Russell, home secretary; viscount Howick, secretary of war, — succeeded in 1839 by T. B. Macaulay (b. 1800; M. P. 1830; raised to the peerage 1857; † 1859).

- 1835, Sept. Reform of municipal corporations act, London not included.
- 1836. Commutation of tithes act.
- 1837, June 20. Death of William IV.

The British in India.

1786-1793. Lord Cornwallis, governor-general.

1792. War with Tipú Sultán, ended by the cession of one half of Mysore to the English and allies.

1793. Capture of Pondicherri, sir John Shore (afterwards lord

Teignmouth), governor-general, succeeded by

1798-1805. lord Mornington (afterwards marquis of Wellesley).

1799. Tipu Sultan, trusting in the promises of Bonaparte, again took up arms, was killed, and his dominions were divided between the English and the Nizám.

1802. Holkar, one of the Mahrattá chiefs, drove the Peshwa from Poona. By the treaty of Bassein the English agreed to assist the Peshwa provided he would surrender his independence, and maintain a body of European troops (the subsidiary policy). Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur united with Holkar against the English. The latter under sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards duke of Wellington), brother of the governor-general,

1803. gained the battles of Assaye, Sept. 3, and Argaum, Nov. 29, while another army under general (afterwards lord) Lake won the battle of Laswari, Nov. 1, and captured Delhi. The Raja of Nagpur and Sindhia, by treaties, surrendered much

1804. territory to the English. In the next year Holkar was defeated by Lake at Furrukabad, and again near Bhartpur 1805, and made peace with the English 1806, Jan. 7.

1805, July-Oct. Lord Cornwallis again governor-general; † Oct.; and was succeeded by

1805-1807. sir G. Barlow.

1806. Mutiny of the Sepoys at Vellore.

1807-1813. Lord Minto, governor-general.

1809. Mutiny of the European officers at Seringapatam.

1813-1823. Lord Moira (afterwards marquis of Hastings), governor-general.

1814-1815. War with the Gurkhas of Nepál.

1817. Pindárí war.

1817-1818. Last Mahratta war. The dominions of the Peshwá were annexed and the Rájá of Nágpur was put under British guardianship, while the states of Rajputana placed themselves under British protection.

1823-1828. Lord Amherst, governor-general.

1824-1826. First Burmese war, English acquire Assam, etc.

1828-1835. Lord William Bentinck, governor-general. Financial reforms; abolition of sati (suttee) or widow-burning; suppression of the thagi (thugs) or hereditary assassins.

1833. Company's charter renewed for twenty years, but the trade was thrown open, and Europeans allowed to settle in the coun-

try. A legal member added to the governor's council, and a commission appointed to revise and codify the laws. Macaulay, first legal member, and president of the commission. The only anuexation of this time was that of Coorg.

1835-1836. Short administration of sir Charles (afterwards lord) Metcalfe, memorable for giving entire freedom to the

press.

Great Britain.

1837—x. Victoria (only child of the late duke of Kent). Separation of Hanover from Great Britain; duke of Cumberland, the eldest surviving son of George III., became king.

1837, Nov. 15. First (13th imperial) parliament of Victoria.

1837. Rebellion in Canada. Burning of the American steamer Caroline. The rebels finally reduced to obedience in 1839. The two provinces, upper and lower Canada, were united in 1840, and in 1847 responsible government was introduced into the colony.

1838, Aug. Meeting of working people near Birmingham. A national petition or peoples' charter was drawn up. The petitioners or chartists demanded, 1. annual parliaments; 2. universal (manhood) suffrage; 3. vote by ballot; 4. abolition of the property qualification of members of parliament; and 5. payment for their services. To these "five points" a sixth, that of equal electoral districts, was afterwards added. The petition was presented to the commons, 1839, June 14, and its rejection was followed by riots which were easily suppressed.

1838, Sept. The anti-corn law league formed at Manchester under the leadership of John Bright (b. 1811; M. P. 1843) and

Richard Cobden (b. 1804; M. P. 1847; † 1865).

1839. Opium war with China ended by treaty of Nankin, 1842, Aug. 29 (p. 561).

1840, Jan. Penny postage introduced (sir Rowland Hill).

Feb. 10. The queen married her cousin Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha.

1841, Aug. 19. Second (14th imperial) parliament of Victoria.

1841, Sept. 6-1846, June 29. Peel's second administration. Duke of Wellington in the cabinet without office; earl Ripon, board of trade, succeeded in 1843 by W. E. Gladstone (b. 1809; M. P. 1832).

1842. Second sliding scale adopted; and the duties on over 700 articles either removed or reduced, the deficiency so created be-

ing made up by an income tax (June 22).

1844. Charter of the Bank of England renewed (Peel act). The issue department established, weekly returns to be published; and circulation limited to 14,000,000l.

1846. Total repeal of the corn laws.

The sliding scale abolished; the duty on wheat imported at or above 53s. per quarter to be 4s. per quarter until 1849, Feb. 1, after that time to be an uniform 1s. per quarter on all kinds of grain imported into the *United Kingdom*; this 1s. duty was repealed in 1869.

1846, June. Settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute with the United

States (p. 554).

1846, July 6-1852, Feb. 23. Ministry of lord John Russell; lord Palmerston, foreign secretary; Macaulay, paymaster general.

- 1846. Failure of the potato crop in Ireland caused a famine 1846 and 1847. Population of Ireland 1841, 8,222,664. 1851, 6,633,982.
- 1847. Commercial panic in England.
- 1847, Nov. 18. Third (15th imperial) parliament of Victoria.

 This distress coupled with the excitement produced by the rev-
- 1848. olutions of 1848 (p. 492) roused rebellion in Ireland, which was easily suppressed, and its leaders Smith O'Brien and Mit-
- 1848, April 10. chell transported; while in England the chartists held a monster meeting on Kennington common, and presented a petition to parliament.
- 1849, June. Repeal of the navigation laws. Encumbered estates

July. act (Ireland).

1850, Sept. 30. Papal bull establishing a Roman catholic hierarchy in England.

1851, July. Ecclesiastical titles bill, imposing a fine of 100l. on all who should endeavor to carry this papal bull into effect, passed (never executed).

1851. Telegraphic communication between France and Eng-

land

- 1851. Great exhibition of the industries of all nations in Hyde Park, London.
- 1852, Feb. 27-Dec. 18. Earl Derby's first ministry, Disraeli, chancellor of exchequer (b. 1805; "Vivian Grey" 1825; M. P. 1837; earl of Beaconsfield, 1876; † 1881).

Sept. 14. Death of the duke of Wellington.

- 1852, Nov. 4. Fourth (16th imperial) parliament of Victoria.
- 1852, Dec. 28-1855, Feb. 5. Aberdeen administration. W. E. Gladstone, chancellor of exchequer; lord Palmerston, home secretary; lord John Russell, foreign secretary. End of Caffir war in South Africa.

Oct. 30. The British fleet entered the Bosphorus.

1853-1856. Crimean war (p. 499).

1854, June 5. Reciprocity treaty with the United States concluded

(p. 555); abrogated 1866.

1855. The mismanagement with regard to the supply of food and clothing for the army in the Crimea and the feeble prosecution of the war rendered the administration unpopular, and 1855, Jan. 30. lord Aberdeen resigned.

1855, Feb. 5-1858, Feb. 22. Palmerston premier. Gladstone,

chancellor of the exchequer, res. Feb. 22.

Feb. 19. Bread riots at Liverpool.

1856. Treaty of Paris ended the Crimean war (p. 501). War Mar. 30. with China. Treaty of *Tien-tsin*, June 26, 1859. Peace of Pekin Aug. 24, 1860 (p. 562).

1857, Apr. 30. Fifth (17th imperial) parliament of Victoria.

Nov. 12. Great commercial panic. Suspension of the bank charter act of 1844.

In consequence of the attempted assassination of Napoleon III. by Orsini, lord Palmerston introduced the conspiracy to murder bill. On its rejection in the commons the ministry resigned, and the

1858, Feb. 22-1859, June 11. Second Derby ministry took office; Disraeli, chancellor of the exchequer.

1858, June. Property qualification of members of parliament abolished.

July. Jews admitted to parliament.

Act for the better government of India.

Aug. 5. The successful laying of the first Atlantic cable (ceased working Sept. 4).

Aug. 26. Treaty with the tycoon (shogun) of Japan (p. 563).

1858. The queen of England proclaimed sovereign of India.

The government of the East India company ceased.

The ministry, defeated on a reform bill introduced by Disraeli,

Apr. 13. dissolved parliament, but being in a minority in the

1859, May 31. Sixth (18th imperial) parliament of Victoria, resigned, and the

1859, June 13-1865, Nov. 6. Second Palmerston ministry came in. Gladstone, chancellor of the exchequer; earl Russell (formerly lord John), foreign secretary; lord Campbell, lord chancellor.

1860, Jan. 23. Commercial treaty between Great Britain and France. July-Oct. The prince of Wales visits the United States and Canada.

1861, July 27. Rupture of diplomatic relations with Mexico.

Nov. 8. Mason and Slidell taken from the British mail steamer Trent (p. 557).

Dec. 23. Death of the prince consort.

1862. Second Exhibition of the industry of all nations opened in May 1. London.

1863. The Maori (native) war in New Zealand, ended in 1869.

1864. The Schleswig-Holstein question (p. 505).

June. Final cession of the Ionian Islands to Greece (p. 483).

July. The Thames embankment begun.

1865, June. Commencement of the Cattle Plague.

Oct. Insurrection in Jamaica. Oct. 18. Death of lord Palmerston.

1865, Nov. 6-1866, June 26. Earl Russell premier.

1866, Feb. 1. Seventh (19th imperial) parliament of Victoria.

Feb. Habeas corpus act suspended in Ireland.

May. Failure of Overend, Gurney and Co. (liabilities over 19,000,-000l.). Panic in London.

July Telegraphic communication with America finally established.

1866, July 6-1868, Feb. 27. Third Derby ministry. Disraeli, chancellor of the exchequer.

1867, Aug. 15. The second reform act, — "a leap in the dark," — which greatly extended the franchise, received the royal assent.

1867. The Fenians attempted the seizure of the arsenal at Chester (Feb.). Rising in Ireland, easily suppressed. Attempt to release Fenians confined in Clerkenwell prison, by exploding

gunpowder under the walls.

1867. Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick were combined into one Dominion of Canada, with power to take in new provinces. Each province retained its own legislature for local affairs. All British America, with the exception of Newfoundland, now belongs to this confederation.

1867. Abyssinia expedition, Magdala.

- 1868, Feb. 27-Dec. 3. Lord Derby resigned, and Mr. Disraeli became premier. The general elections to the new parliament were so decidedly in favor of the liberals that the ministry resigned, and
- 1868, Dec. 9-1874, Feb. 21. Mr. Gladstone became prime minister. 1868, Dec. 10. Eighth (20th imperial) parliament of Victoria.
- July 26. Disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish church. A portion of the money so obtained given to the Roman catholic college of Maynooth, and another portion applied to educational purposes. The royal assent was at the same time given to the bankruptcy bill, and to a bill abolishing imprisonment for debt. (Debtors' prisons: Fleet, Marshalsea, etc.)

1868, Oct. 16. Opening of the Suez canal.

1870. Irish land act provided, among other things, for compensation to out-going tenants; for loans to landlords for improvements, and to tenants desirous of purchasing their holdings (Bright clauses).

At the same session a system of

1870. national education was established by law.

1871. Purchase in the army abolished.

Treaty of Washington with the United States, by which the Alabama claims were settled by

1872. Arbitration at Geneva and the so-called northwestern boundary dispute, decided by the emperor of Germany as arbiter

(p. 560).

1872. Vote by ballot introduced.

1873. Ashantee war. Coomassie taken by

1874. the British, commanded by general Wolseley.

- 1874, Feb. 21.-1880, Apr. 28. Mr. Disraeli (1876, Aug., earl of Beaconsfield), premier; sir Stafford Northcote, chancellor of the exchequer.
- 1874, March 5. Ninth (21st imperial) parliament of Victoria.
- 1875. Purchase of Suez canal shares from the khedive of Egypt. 1875, 1876. Visit of the *Prince of Wales to India*. The queen pro-

claimed empress of India. Commercial panic.

1878, July 13. Treaty of Berlin. British take possession of Cyprus

July 14 (p. 524).

1879. Irish land league, supported by Parnell, Dillon, etc. 1879, 1880, famine in Ireland.

1879. War with the Zulus ("Jingoism").

1880, Feb. 23. Parliament dissolved. Elections in favor of liberals;

resignation of ministers, Apr. 22.

1880, Apr. 28. Mr. Gladstone. prime minister; marquis of Hartington, secretary for India; W. E. Forster, chief secretary for Ireland, succeeded by lord F. Cavendish, and he by G. O. Trevellyan. John Bright, chancellor of the duchy.

1880, Apr. 29. Tenth (22d imperial) parliament of Victoria.

1881, March 3. Irish coercion act.

Aug. 22. Irish land act provided for a court of commission to try differences between landlords and tenants; and in a measure granted the "three F's:" 1. free sale; 2. fair rents; 3. fixity of tenure.

1882, May 6. Murder of lord Frederick Cavendish and an

under-secretary in Dublin.

July 11. Bombardment of Alexandria (Egypt). Resignation of John Bright.

July 14. A new Irish coercion act went into force.

Sept. Total defeat of Egyptian rebels by the British, commanded by sir Garnet Wolseley. Capture of Tel-el-Kebir.

The British in India.

1836–1842. Lord Auckland, governor-general.

1839. First Afghan war, occasioned by an attempt to place a ruler in Afghánistán who should be subservient to the British. Kábul was easily occupied. Dost Muhammad taken prisoner, and Sháh Shujá installed. In November, 1841, the Afgháns rose, and, led by Akbar Khán, drove the British from Kábul. Terrible winter retreat to Jalálábád.

1842-1844. Earl of Ellenborough, governor-general. Two armies sent to Afghánistán. Relief of Kandahár and Jalálábád. Capture of Kábul. The bázár blown up. Dost Muhammad re-

placed, and the British withdrawn.

1844-1848. Sir Henry (afterwards lord) Hardinge, governorgeneral.

1845. First Síkh war.

1848-1856. Earl of Dalhousie, governor-general.

1848, 1849. Second Sikh war ended in the annexation of the Punjab.

1852. Second Burmese war. British Burma annexed.

1856. Annexation of Oudh on the ground of misrule.

1856–1862. Earl Canning, governor-general.

of the Muhammadans at Delhi. Massacre at Cawnpore (Nána Sáhib), June 27. First relief of Lucknow by Havelock, Sept. 25; final deliverance of the garrison by sir Colin Campbell, Nov. 16. Siege and capture of Delhi, June—Sept. The mughal emperor, Bahádur Sháh, captured, deposed, and banished to Rangoon; † 1862. End of the mughal empire.

banished to Rangoon; † 1862. End of the mughal empire.

1858. The government of India transferred to the crown; gov-

ernor-general to be viceroy.

1862-1863. Lord Elgin, viceroy; 1864-1869, lord Lawrence, viceroy. Famine in Orissa, 1866; in Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustán, 1868, 1869.

1869-1872. Lord Mayo, viceroy. Internal improvements.

1872-1876. Lord Northbrook, viceroy. Dethronement of the Mahrattá Gáekwár of Baroda. Visit of the prince of Wales to India.

1876-1880. Lord Lytton, viceroy.

1877, Jan. 1. The queen proclaimed empress of India.

1877, 1878. Famine in southern India.

1878–1881. Second Afghan war. Refusal of Sher Alí to admit a British embassy. The Khaibar (Kyber), the Kuram, and the Bolán passes occupied by the British troops. † Sher Alí. Abdication of his son, Yákub Khán. Defeat of a brigade of British troops by Ayúb Khán. Brilliant march of sir F. Roberts from Kábul to Kandahár, and rout of Ayúb Khán, 1880, Sept. 1. Abdurrahman Khán, the eldest male representative of Dost Muhammad, recognized by the British as Amir, and their troops withdrawn from Kábul and Kandahár.

1880. Marquis of Ripon, viceroy.

1881. Population of all India 252,541,210, an increase in ten years of over twelve millions.

§ 5. UNITED STATES.

1789. First congress met at New York, March 4.

1789. George Washington (Virginia), president. John Apr. 30. Adams, vice-president.

Nov. 1. North Carolina accepted the constitution.

1789. Three executive departments created. Thomas Jefferson (b. 1743, † 1825), secretary of state; Alexander Hamilton (b. 1757, † 1809), secretary of the treasury; Henry Knox, secretary of war. These with the attorney general formed the cabinet. A national judiciary was also established. John Jay, chief justice of the supreme court.

1789. First ten amendments (in the nature of a bill of rights) to the constitution proposed by congress to the state legislatures, and ratified, in the course of two years, by three fourths of the

states.

1790, May 29. Rhode Island accepted the constitution.

1790. The financial affairs of the country were put on a firm basis. The seat of government to be at Philadelphia for ten years, and after that permanently located on the Potomac, where land was ceded by the states of Maryland and Virginia (District of Columbia), and the city of Washington laid out.

1790–1795. Indian war. Defeat of Harmar 1790; St. Clair 1791;

and victory of Wayne 1794.

1790. Death of Franklin.

Population 3,921,326 (1st census). National debt Jan. 1, 1791, \$75,463,476.52.

1791, Aug. George Hammond, minister from Great Britain, received. Vermont admitted (14th state).

A national bank (United States bank) chartered for twenty 1792, Apr. 2. years, and a mint, were established at Philadelphia.

1792. Two parties now came into prominence: the republican, afterwards democratic, led by Jefferson; and the federalist, whose leaders were Hamilton and Adams.

1792. Kentucky admitted (15th state).

Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin.

Washington and Adams reëlected.

1793. France declared war against Great Britain, and sent Genet as minister to the United States. He arrived at Charleston in

April, and proceeded to fit out privateers, etc.

Washington issued a proclamation of neutrality, Apr. 22; and the next year (1794) the neutrality act was passed. Genet appealed from the executive to the people, and, upon the demand of the government, was recalled.

1793. Fugitive slave act, substantially a dead letter until revived

in 1850.

1794. Whiskey insurrection in western Pennsylvania. It was caused by an *internal revenue law* of 1791, which laid an excise on domestic spirits, and was put down by an army composed of the militia of Pennsylvania and adjoining states.

1794. Eleventh amendment, securing the non-suability of states,

proposed by congress, and declared ratified Jan. 1798.

1794. Peace purchased from Algiers, and from Tripoli and Tunis

in the following years.

- 1794. The treaty of peace (p. 432) had been fully carried out by neither party. Great Britain had not delivered the posts held by her on the northern frontier. And she was accused of inciting the Indians to hostility, of impressing American seamen, and of capturing American trading vessels; and besides, many slaves had been carried away by the British when they evacuated New York. On the other side, it was alleged that the provisions of the treaty with regard to the collection of debts due to British subjects had not been observed. To settle these differences John Jay was sent to England, and a
- 1794, Nov. 19. Treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation (Jay's treaty) was concluded. It provided for the delivery of the posts before June, 1794; for a commission to decide what river was the "St. Croix" (p. 432); for compensation in certain cases to British subjects and American citizens, to be ascertained by commissioners; for the regulation of trade between the two countries; for the extradition of criminals, etc. The treaty met with great opposition; the ratifications were not exchanged till Oct. 1795; and the money necessary to carry it out was not voted till 1796 (speech of Fisher Ames).

1795. Treaty with Spain established the southern boundary of the United States, and secured the free navigation of the Missis-

sippi, with right of deposit at New Orleans.

1796. Tennessee admitted (16th state). Sept. 18. Washington's farcwell address.

1797, Mar. 4. John Adams (Massachusetts), federalist, 2d president.

Thomas Jefferson, republican, vice-president.

1797. Special mission to France. Attempt on the part of the French to extort money (X. Y. Z. affair). Pinckney, one of the envoys, replied: "Millions for defense, not one cent to tribute." Hostilities actually began. Provisional army raised; Washington, lieutenantgeneral; navy department organized 1798; Constellation captured L'Insurgente 1799; but when Bonaparte came into power more pacific intentions prevailed, and a convention was concluded 1800, Sept. 30.

The language of the French sympathizers became so violent that the alien and sedition laws were passed. They were followed by the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions of 1798–1799, in which it was asserted that a state had a right to decide for itself how far the national authority should be considered binding.

1799, Dec. 14. Death of Washington.
1800, Nov. 22. Congress met in Washington for the first time.

Population, 5,319,762 (2d census).

- John Marshall, chief justice of the supreme court. In the elections of 1800 the republican candidates received a majority of the votes, but as they had equal numbers the election went to the house of representatives, which chose
- Thomas Jefferson (Virginia) 3d president; and **1800.** Aaron Burr, vice-president. James Madison, secretary of state; Albert Gallatin, secretary of the treasury.

Repeal of the internal revenue taxes, and of many un-

popular laws. 1802. Ohio admitted (17th state).

- 1803, April 30. The Louisiana Purchase, by which the United States acquired: all of its present area between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, north of the then northern boundary of Mexico; the island on which New Orleans stands; and a claim to Texas, to west Florida, as that portion of the present states of Mississippi and Alabama south of 31° north latitude was then called, and perhaps even to territory west of the Rocky Mountains (p. 554). The price was fifteen millions of dollars, and the original area of the United States was more than doubled.
- 1803, Dec. 12. Twelfth amendment, altering the mode of electing president and vice-president, proposed by congress, and declared ratified 1804, Sept. 25.

1804–1805. Failure of the impeachment of Chase, a justice of the supreme court.

1804, July. Aaron Burr killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel.

1801-1805. Tripolitan war. Burning of the frigate Philadelphia (Decatur), which had been captured while aground, 1804. Capture of Derne. Bombardment of Tripoli. Treaty 1805. No more tribute to be paid by the United States.

Thomas Jefferson reëlected president; George

Clinton vice-president.

1806, April. The British ship Leander fired on an American trading sloop, killing John Pierce, the owner. The Leander ordered out of the waters of the United States.

1806, May 16. The British government issued orders in council, declaring the coast of Europe from the Elbe to Brest to be in a partial state of blockade; Napoleon replied (Nov. 21) by the Berlin decree (p. 469), Great Britain issued other orders in council (Jan. 7 and Nov. 11, 1807), followed (Dec.) by the Milan decree (p. 537), which orders and decrees practically put an end to the most profitable portion of the commerce of the United States.

1807, June 22. The frigate Chesapeake was fired into by the British ship Leopard, and four men claimed as deserters were taken out of her by the British. The president by proclamation ordered all British ships of war to leave the coast; reparation was demanded of Great Britain, and congress laid an embargo (Jefferson's embargo)

on all shipping in the ports of the United States (Dec. 22).

1806. Failure of Miranda's scheme for revolutionizing the Spanish American colonies.

1807. Trial and acquittal of Aaron Burr, late vice-president, for treason. It is said that he had designed seizing New Orleans, detaching several states from the union, and invading Mexico.

1807. Robert Fulton made the first successful application of steam to navigation, in the steamboat Clermont (engine imported).

1808. The importation of slaves into the United States prohibited after Jan. 1, 1808.

The embargo policy was designed to compel Great Britain and France to withdraw their orders and decrees. The further history is as follows:—

1808. Supplementary acts: 1. Jan. 8, coasting and fishing vessels to give bonds to re-land cargoes in United States. 2. Mar. 12, boats and vessels of all kinds and land-carriages made subject to the embargo [April 17, Bayonne decree directing the seizure of all American vessels then in the ports of France]. 3. Apr. 25, coasting trade forbidden to foreign vessels, and to be exercised by others only under the most stringent rules; enforcing act of 1809 (Jan. 9), by which every attempt to avoid the embargo worked the forfeiture of ship, boat, or vehicle, and involved a fine of four times the value of the merchandise, one half to the informer, and the president was authorized to use the army and navy to enforce the embargo. Embargo repealed except as to France and England, to take effect 1809, Mar. 15. No goods to be imported from those countries after May 20.

1809, March 4. James Madison (Virginia), democrat, 4th

president. James Monroe, secretary of state.

1810. Population 7,239,881 (3d census).

1810, March 23. Rambouillet decree, ordering the sale of all American vessels which had been seized for violating the French decrees.

1810, May 1. Act known as Macon's No. 2 provided that in case either Great Britain or France should revoke its edicts the United States would prohibit trade with the other. Napoleon revoked the Berlin and Milan decrees, but not the Rambouillet decree, Aug. 5, to take effect Nov. 1, as to American vessels. This was considered by the president as a sufficient compliance with the condition of

Macon's No. 2, and a proclamation declared the non-importation act revived as to Great Britain after Feb. 2, 1811.

- 1811, May 16. Engagement between the American frigate President and the British ship Little Belt.
- 1812. Louisiana admitted (18th state).
- 1812, Apr. 4. Embargo for ninety days. War declared against Great Britain. The orders in council of Jan. and Apr. 1807, revoked (June 23).
- 1812-1814. War with Great Britain. Events of 1812. Unsuccessful invasion of Canada, surrender of Detroit (Aug. 16), defeat at Queenstown (Oct. 13). On the water, however, the American ship Essex (Porter) captured the Alert; the Constitution (Hull), the Guerrière; the Wasp, the Frolic (both taken by the Poictiers, a British 74); the United States (Decatur), the Macedonian; and the Constitution (Bainbridge), the Java. In 1813 the Americans were defeated at Frenchtown (Jan.); gained the battle of Lake Erie (Perry); but were driven from their posts on the Niagara. The English blockaded the Atlantic seaboard, and June 1 the British frigate Shannon captured the Chesapeake; the Pelican, the Argus; but on the other hand the American ship Hornet took the Peacock; the Enterprise, the Boxer. In 1814 there was another attempt to invade Canada; the Americans captured Fort Erie and won the battles of Chippewa (July 5) and Lundy's Lane (July 15), but . these victories led to nothing. Battle of Lake Champlain won by McDonough (Sept. 11). Aug. 24, the British under Ross defeated the Americans at Bladensburgh; entered Washington the next day and burnt all the public buildings; but were repulsed in an attempt on Baltimore (Sept. 13); and with great loss at New Orleans (Dec., Jackson). At sea the American ship Essex (Porter), after a successful cruise in the Pacific, was captured by the Phæbe and Cherub; the Peacock captured the Epervier; the Wasp, the Reindeer and Avon. In 1815 the Constitution captured the Cyane and Levant; and the Hornet, the Penguin; while the President surrendered to a British squadron. Peace, however, had been made at Ghent, December 24, 1814, by a treaty by which none of the questions which led to the war were settled, but which provided for commissions to run the boundaries, as determined in previous treaties.

The eastern states had resisted the *embargo*, and later had taken a very lukewarm interest in the war, and had consequently been left to shift for themselves. This dissatisfaction led to the summoning of the Hartford convention, 1814, Dec. 15, which adjourned in three weeks without accomplishing anything.

1815. Squadron, under Decatur, sent to the Mediterranean, and a treaty negotiated with Algiers.

- 1816. The second United States bank chartered for twenty years (charter of 1st expired in 1811). Protective tariff. Indiana admitted (19th state).
- 1817-1825. James Monroe (Virginia), democrat, 5th president. Era of good feeling. J. Q. Adams, secretary of state; W. H. Crawford, secretary of the treasury; and John C. Calhoun, secretary of war (res. 1817).

1817. Mississippi admitted (20th state).

1817-1818. Seminole war (Jackson). Invasion of Florida, then a colony of Spain. Execution of two British subjects.

1818. Illinois admitted (21st state).

Pensions granted to the survivors of the revolutionary war, in

needy circumstances.

Convention with Great Britain as to the fisheries; the country west of the "Stony [Rocky] Mountains" to be occupied by the two powers in common for ten years, etc.

1819. Treaty with Spain. She gave up all claim to west Florida, (p. 432) which had been occupied by the United States since 1810, and ceded east Florida. The United States gave up all claim to Texas, and agreed to pay an indemnity of five millions to its own citizens for claims which they had against Spain.

1819. Alabama (22d state). Financial crisis.

- 1820. Maine (23d state). Population of the United States 9,638,453.
- 1820. Missouri compromise, by which it was agreed that slavery should be prohibited in the United States west of the Mississippi, north of 36° 30' north latitude, this being the

1821. southern border of Missouri, which was admitted as a slave

state (24th state).

- 1823, Dec. 2. The president in his annual message enunciated the Monroe doctrine: "That the American continents, by the free and independent position which they have assumed and maintained, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization, by any European power;" and that the extension of the system of the Holy alliance (p. 485) to America would not be viewed "in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."
 - Neither of the candidates for president receiving a majority of the electoral vote, the house of representatives chose
- 1825-1829. John Quincy Adams (b. 1767, † 1848) (Massachusetts), democrat, president, although Andrew Jackson had received a plurality in the electoral college; John C. Calhoun (b. 1782, † 1850), vice-president; Henry Clay (b. 1777, † 1852), secretary of state.

1825. The *Erie canal* was finished; the first railroad in America (at Quincy, Mass.) was completed in 1827, although steam was

not used on such a road in this country until 1829.

1826. Failure of the Panama congress, and 1827 of another appointed to meet near the city of Mexico. These were attempts to put the *Monroe doctrine* into practice.

1828. Tariff of abominations.

1829-1837. Andrew Jackson (b. 1737, † 1845), (Tennessee), democrat, 7th president; John C. Calhoun, vice-president (res. 1831); Martin Van Buren (b. 1782, † 1862), secretary of state.

Inauguration of the spoils system; about 690 office holders removed by the president during the first year of his admin-

istration, in contrast with only seventy-four removals by all former presidents. The government was now in the hands of those who, according to senator Marcy of New York, saw "nothing wrong in the rule that to the victor belong the spoils of the enemy."

1829. The merchants of Boston protested against the tariff acts, and were followed by the legislatures of South Carolina, Virginia,

Alabama, and North Carolina.

1830. Population 12,866,020 (5th census).

1830, Jan. 27. Speech of Daniel Webster (b. 1782, † 1852), in the senate of the United States in reply to colonel **Hayne** of South Carolina, who upheld extreme *states-rights* views.

1831. William Lloyd Garrison established in Boston a paper called the Liberator, advocating the immediate and unconditional emancipation of the negroes. This led to the organization of the abolitionists.

1821. Convention with France, mutual settlement of claims. France to pay the United States 25,000,000 francs, and to be paid 1,300,000 francs, such sums to be distributed to claimants in either country.

The tariff act of 1832, while containing a reduction of duties, retained the protective principle. A convention held in South

Carolina reported

- 1832. A nullification ordinance (Nov. 1832), which declared that the tariff laws of 1828 and 1832 were unconstitutional "and are null and void, and no law, nor binding upon this state," etc. Colonel Hayne was elected governor of South Carolina, and Calhoun took the seat thus vacated in the senate. Dec. 11 president Jackson issued the nullification proclamation, in which the doctrine of states-rights was refuted and the national theory set forth; and he declared his intention of executing the laws of the United States. This was followed by the nullification message, 1833, Jan. 16. This trouble was finally ended by the compromise tariff act, introduced into the senate by Henry Clay, 1833, Feb. 12. Both sides claimed the victory.
- 1835-1842. War with the Seminole Indians.
- 1836. Arkansas (25th state).
- 1837. Michigan (26th state).
- 1837-1841. Martin Van Buren (New York), democrat, 8th president.
- 1837. Financial crisis: causes, removal (1833) of deposits from the United States bank to the local banks; great extension of credit, and over-issue of paper money; contraction of the volume of the currency by the (1836, July 11) specie circular, which produced a great scarcity of money.

1837. Rebellion in Canada, burning of the American steamer Car-

oline by the royalists. McLeod's case.

1838-1839. The gag resolutions, by which congress declared that petitions praying for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia or against the inter-state slave trade should be tabled without being debated, referred, or printed.

1840. Independent treasury established; the national funds to be kept in the treasury at Washington and in the sub-treasuries established in certain cities, subject to the order of the treasurer.

1840. Population 17,069,453 (6th census). After an exciting contest was elected

- 1841-1845. William Henry Harrison (Ohio), whig, 9th president, † 1841, Apr., succeeded by John Tyler (b. 1790, † 1862) of Virginia, vice-president. Daniel Webster, secretary of state (res. 1843).
- 1842. The northeastern boundary dispute with Great Britain settled by the Ashburton treaty.

1842. Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island.

1844. Experimental telegraph line between Washington and Baltimore built by professor S. F. B. Morse with money appropriated by congress.

1845. Florida (27th state).

In 1821 Mexico had separated from Spain, and in 1836 Texas declared itself independent of Mexico. Houston with eight hundred Texans defeated Santa Anna at the San Jacinto (1836, Apr. 21), and drove the Mexicans across the Rio Grande; and

- 1845, March. Texas was annexed to the United States.
- 1845-1849. James K. Polk (Γennessee), democrat, 11th president; James Buchanan (b. 1781, † 1868), secretary of state.

1845. **Texas** (28th state); 1846, Iowa (29th state).

The United States and Great Britain claimed the territory west of the Rocky Mountains from the northern boundary of Mexico, 42° north latitude, to the southern boundary of Alaska, 54° 40′ north latitude. By the

1846. Oregon treaty this tract was divided between them, the 49th parallel forming the boundary, and the southern portion, which fell to the United States, retained the name of Oregon.

The annexation of Texas led to a

1846-1848. War with Mexico,

which was invaded by an army from the north commanded by Zachary Taylor (b. 1786, † 1860); battles of Palo Alto (May 8), Resaca (May 9). Surrender of Monterey (Sept. 24), Buena Vista (1847, Feb. 22 and 23). In March, 1847, another army under general Scott landed near Vera Cruz, which surrendered March 29th. He then set out for the city of Mexico, and won the battles of Cerro Gordo (April 18), Churubusco (Aug. 20), captured the fortress of Chapultepec (Sept. 12 and 13), and entered the city of Mexico (Sept. 14). On the Pacific the Americans had been equally successful, and the war was ended by the

1848, Feb. 2. Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo.

Mexico gave up all claim to Texas, the Rio Grande to be the boundary, and ceded to the United States the provinces of New Mexico and Upper California, in all about 522,955 square miles, in consideration of fifteen millions of dollars.

Wisconsin (30th state). **1848.**

In 1846 the Wilmot proviso, which provided that slavery should not be permitted in whatever territory should be acquired from Mexico, was defeated; but the agitation it occasioned led to the organization of

- The Free soil party, the precursor of the present republican **1848.** party.
- 1849-1853. Zachary Taylor (Louisiana), whig, 12th president, † July 9, 1850; succeeded by Millard Fillmore of New York, vice-president. John M. Clayton, secretary of state; followed by Daniel Webster 1850, July 20, † 1852; who was succeeded by Edward Everett (b. 1794, † 1865).

Population 23,191,876 (7th census). The discovery of gold in California (1847) had led to the rapid population of that

territory, and in 1850 it became the 31st state.

- 1850, Sept. Clay's compromises provided for the admission of California as a free state; for the payment to Texas of ten millions for her claim to New Mexico; for the organization of Utah and New Mexico as territories without any mention of slavery; for the prohibition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and for the rendition of slaves who had escaped to free states, this last known as the
- Fugitive Slave Law. **1850.**
- 1850, April 19. Clayton-Bulwer treaty with Great Britain settled certain questions with regard to communication between the Atlantic and Pacific; which, owing to the acquisition of California, had become of importance to the United States.
- Franklin Pierce (New Hampshire), demo-1853-1857. crat, 14th president; William L. Marcy, secretary of state; Jefferson Davis (b. 1808), secretary of war.
- 1853, Dec. 30. Boundary dispute with Mexico settled by the Gadsden purchase; by which the boundary was to be the Rio Grande from its mouth to 31° 20' north latitude; thence due west to the 111th meridian of longitude west of Greenwich; thence in a straight line to a point on the Colorado river twenty miles below the junction of the Gila; thence up the middle of the Colorado river until it intersects the boundary of California as determined by the treaty of 1848. The price was ten millions, and the area thus acquired was 45,000 square miles.

Treaty with Japan, which opened that country to commer-1354. cial intercourse with the United States, negotiated by commo-

dore *Perry* (p. 563).

Reciprocity treaty with Great Britain secured to the Americans the right to the "fisheries;" and certain articles were to be admitted free of duty into the United States and the British provinces. This treaty was terminated in 1866 by the United States.

Kansas-Nebraska bill passed. It provided for the organization of two territories, Kansas and Nebraska, and left the question of slavery to those who should there settle (squatter sovereignty), thus repealing in part the Missouri compromise.

struggle immediately ensued between the slave-holders and the abolitionists as to which party should colonize these territories first. Sack of Lawrence by "border ruffians" (1856, May 21); battle of Ossawattomie (John Brown). At last the anti-slavery party proved successful. 1856. Rise of "Know-Nothingism," or secret opposition to foreign influence in national legislation.

1857-1861. James Buchanan (Pennsylvania), democrat,

15th president.

1857. In the Dred Scott case the supreme court decided that under the constitution neither negro slaves nor their descendants, slave or free, could become citizens of the United States; and added, as a dictum, that the Missouri compromise was unconstitutional, and that therefore a slave did not become free by being carried to a territory where slavery had been prohibited under that compromise.

1857. Great commercial distress throughout the country. 1858. Minnesota (32d state); 1859, Oregon (33d state).

1859. John Brown with a handful of men seized the United Oct. 19. States arsenal at Harper's Ferry; but, after half his men were killed, was captured, and hanged December 2d of the same year.

1860. Population of the United States 31,443,332 (8th census).

1860, Nov. Abraham Lincoln (b. 1809, † 1865) of Illinois, republican, received the electoral votes of all the free states,—
New Jersey excepted,—but none from the slave states, and was declared president-elect.

1860, Dec. 20. South Carolina seceded from the union, and was followed by Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and North Carolina in January, 1861; by Texas in February; Virginia in April; and by Tennessee and Arkansas in May. Missouri and Kentucky declared themselves neutral. Delegates from the seceded states met in convention at Montgomery, Alabama, 1861, Feb. 4; and formed a provisional government under the style of the Confederate States of America, Feb. 8. Jefferson Davis was elected president; Alexander H. Stephens, vice-president. The seceding states endeavored to seize all the national property within their borders, and were successful except at Pensacola (Florida) and Charleston (South Carolina). At the latter place the commander of the United States forces withdrew to an unfinished fort, Sumter, on an island in the harbor, Dec. 26, 1860; and on the 9th of January, 1861, a steamer, the Star of the West, bringing him supplies, was fired on by the state forces, and forced to return. 1861, Jan. 29. Kansas admitted to the union as a free (34th) state.

1861. Lincoln reached Washington in safety Feb. 23; and was inaugurated (16th) president of the United States on March 4 without disturbance. William H. Seward, secretary of state; Simon Cameron, succeeded Jan. 1862, by Edwin M. Stanton, secretary of war; Salmon P. Chase, secretary of the treasury.

The government of the so-called confederate states attempted to open negotiations, with the federal authorities, for a peaceful separation,

but the president declined to entertain any such propositions. On the contrary, it was determined to succour the garrison in Charleston harbor. The insurgents fired on fort Sumter 1861, Apr. 12, which surrendered Apr. 14.

1861-1865. The Civil War.

Apr. 15, the president issued a proclamation calling for 75,000 volunteers to serve for three months; and summoned congress to meet July 4. April 18 a few companies of Pennsylvania militia reached Washington; and on April 19, the anniversary of the battle of Lexington, the sixth Massachusetts regiment was attacked by a mob while passing through Baltimore. The same day the president declared the ports of the seceded states to be in a state of blockade. On May 3d he issued a call for 42,000 men to serve for three years or the war. May 13, Great Britain recognized the so-called confederate states as belligerents. June 10 the union troops were repulsed at Big Bethel, and July 21 were routed at Bull Run or Manassas.

- Nov. 1. George B. McClellan succeeded general Scott in command of the union forces. Nov. 8, Mason and Slidell, commissioners from the confederate states to Great Britain and France, were taken from the British mail steamer Trent by the American steamer San Jacinto. War with Great Britain averted through the prudence and skill of Mr. Seward. The commissioners were given up, and thus was established a principle of international law for which the United States had invariably contended.
- Events of 1862. Feb. 6, capture of Fort Henry (in Tennessee) by the union forces. Feb. 16, "unconditional surrender" of Fort Donelson to general U. S. Grant (b. 1822). Mar. 9, Monitor and Merrimac. Mar. 14, capture of Newbern. Apr. 6 and 7, battle of Shiloh or Pittsburgh landing (Grant); retreat of the confederates. Apr. 16, slavery abolished in the District of Columbia. April 24, a fleet under flagofficer (afterwards admiral) David G. Farragut ran the forts below New Orleans, and received the surrender of that city the next day.
- March to July, Peninsular campaign (McClellan). Battle of Fair Oaks May 31 and June 1; seven days battles before Richmond (Mechanicsville, Gaines's Mill, White Oak swamp, and Malvern Hill July 1); withdrawal from the peninsula. The confederate army, now under the command of general Robert E. Lee (b. 1808, † 1873), pressed forward toward Washington. Battle of Cedar Mountain (Aug. 5); defeat of the union army under Pope at the second battle of Bull Run, Aug. 30. Lee crossed the Potomac into Maryland, but was defeated at South Mountain, and after the battle of the Antietam (Sept. 17) recrossed the Potomac. McClellan superseded by Burnside, who was repulsed with great loss at Fredericksburg (Dec. 13), and was succeeded (Jan. 26) by general Hooker.

Events of 1863. After the battle of the Antietam the president had issued a proclamation declaring that all slaves in states or parts of states in rebellion Jan. 1, 1863, should then be free; and on that day he issued the formal emancipation proclamation.

The army of the Potomac, under general Hooker, defeated at Chancellorsville (May 3). † Stonewall Jackson (b. 1826). Lee again attempted an invasion of the north, but was defeated by the army of the Potomac, now commanded by general George G. Meade (b. 1816, † 1872), at Gettysburg (July 1-3). July 4, Vicksburg surrendered to Grant. These two events were the turning points of the war. Grant assumed command of the military division of the Mississippi, and with force composed of the army of the Cumberland commanded by Thomas (b. 1816, † 1870), and reinforcements from Vicksburg under William T. Sherman (b. 1820), and from the Potomac under Hooker, fought and won the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge at Chattanooga, Tennessee, Nov. 24 and 25.

West Virginia (loyal portion of Virginia) (35th state).

Events of 1864. Grant made a lieutenant-general (March 9), and commander-in-chief (Mar. 12) of all the armies of the United States which henceforth operated on a settled plan. May 3, Grant with the army of the Potomac under general Meade crossed the Rapidan, fought the battles of the Wilderness (May 5 to 12), Spottsylvania (May 12-21), North Anna (May 21-31), Cold Harbor (June 1-3), and sat down before Petersburg, June 19. A confederate force under Early was sent to threaten Washington, and thus to secure the withdrawal of Grant. Early penetrated into Maryland and Pennsylvania, but was defeated by Sheridan (b. 1831) at Opequan (Sept. 19), Fisher's Hill (Sept. 21), and at Cedar Creek The Shenandoah valley was then devastated, and Sheridan rejoined Grant before Petersburg. The western armies under Sherman began a campaign against the confederates led by general Joe Johnston (b. 1807) May 6, and after a series of engagements reached Atlanta, which was evacuated by the confederates Sept. 2. A portion of his army was then sent north under Thomas to watch Hood (the successor of Johnston), who was finally defeated before Nashville, Dec. 15 and 16. Meanwhile Sherman, after burning Atlanta, started on the march through Georgia. He reached the sea Dec. 12, and took Savannah Dec. 22. On the water the Kearsarge (Winslow) sank the confederate steamer Alabama off Cherbourg (Alabama claims, p. 560); and a fleet under vice-admiral Farragut ran the forts at Mobile, Aug. 5.

1864, Nov. Nevada (36th state).

Nov. 8. Reëlection of Abraham Lincoln. Andrew Johnson, vice-president.

1865. The Thirteenth Amendment, prohibiting slav-

- ery within the United States, was proposed by congress Feb. 1, and was declared ratified Dec. 18th.
- Terry, Jan. 15. Grant had gradually drawn his lines around Lee's right flank, and on April 1st Sheridan won the battle of Five Forks, which compelled the evacuation of Petersburg April 2, and the surrender of Richmond April 3. Grant, with his whole army, under Meade and Sheridan, pursued Lee, who, being surrounded, capitulated at Appomattox Court House, April 9. Meantime Sherman had set out from Savannah for the north, Feb. 1. On Feb. 17, he compelled the evacuation of Charleston, and on April 26 received the surrender of the last confederate army, under Johnston.

1865, April 15. Assassination of Lincoln.

Andrew Johnson, vice-president, succeeds.

Cost of the war. National debt in 1860, \$64,842,287; in 1866, \$2,773,236,173, which great increase was in addition to the debts incurred by the states and municipalities.

1865, May 22. The southern ports declared open.

- May 29. Amnesty to all persons engaged in the rebellion, with the exception of fourteen specified classes.
- 1966, Apr. 9. Civil rights bill passed over the president's veto.
- June 16. Fourteenth amendment, securing to the freedmen the right of citizenship, declaring the validity of the national debt, and regulating the basis of representation and disqualification from office, proposed by congress, and declared ratified 1868, July 28.
- 1866, July 16. Act to continue the freedmen's bureau, which had charge of the loyal and suffering classes, black and white, in the southern states, passed over the president's veto.
- 1866, July 27. Telegraphic communication finally established with Great Britain.
- 1867, March 1. Nebraska (37th state).
- Mar. 2. Reconstruction act passed over the president's veto. It divided the ten southern states into five military districts, each commanded by an army officer, who should see to the protection of life and property. The seceded states to be restored to their place in the union, whenever a convention of delegates, "elected by the male citizens, . . . of whatever race, color, or previous condition," except those disfranchised for participation in rebellion, etc., should frame a constitution, which, being ratified by the people and approved by congress, should go into operation, and the legislature thereupon elected should adopt the fourteenth amendment.
- 1867, Mar. 4. Tenure of office bill passed over the president's veto.
- 1867, Mar. 30. Alaska purchase. Area 577,340 square miles; price a little over seven million dollars.
- 1868, Feb. 24-May 26. Impeachment of president Andrew Johnson by the house of representatives. He had op-

posed the reconstruction measures of congress; but the immediate cause of the impeachment was an alleged violation of the tenure of office act of 1867, Mar. 4. The senate acquitted him by one vote (35 to 19, the constitution requiring a two thirds majority).

- 1868, Dec. 25. Amnesty extended.
- 1869, Feb. 26. Fifteenth amendment, that the right to vote shall not be denied or abridged on account of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude," proposed by congress, and declared ratified, 1870, Mar. 30.
- 1869, Mar. 4-1877, Mar. 5. Ulysses S. Grant (Illinois), republican, 18th president.

1870. Population 38,555,983 (9th census).

- 1871, Mar. 3. A clause in the appropriation bill authorized the president to appoint a civil service commission to prescribe rules, etc.
- 1871, May 8. Treaty of Washington with Great Britain provided: 1. For the reference to the emperor of Germany of the dispute as to the Oregon boundary (decided in favor of the United States, 1872, Oct. 21). 2. For a partial settlement of the fishery dispute (Halifax award, 1877, gave Great Britain five and one half million dollars); this part of the treaty abrogated by act of the United States, 1883. 3. For the settlement of the Alabama claims (Geneva tribunal of arbitration awarded to the United States over fifteen million dollars).

1873. Commercial crisis.

1876. Centennial exhibition at Philadelphia.

- 1876. The national elections of this year were very close, and congress appointed an electoral commission (five senators, five representatives, and five justices of the supreme court), which declared the republican candidate elected.
- 1877, Mar. 5–1881, Mar. 4. Rutherford B. Hayes (Ohio), republican, 19th president.

1879, Jan. 1. Resumption of specie payments.

1880. Population 50,155,183 (10th census).

- 1881, Mar. 4. James A. Garfield (Ohio), republican, 20th president. July 2, shot and mortally wounded. † Sept. 19. Succeeded by the vice-president, Chester A. Arthur, of New York, republican.
- 1882, May 6. Immigration of Chinese laborers suspended for ten years, in accordance with a treaty with China, concluded 1880, Nov. 7.
- 1883, Jan. 9. Civil service act (Pendleton bill) introduced the principle of compulsory competitive examination into the civil service of the United States.

§ 6. CHINA.

1796-1820. Kiaking.

Frequent insurrections, rampant piracy. Embassy of lord Amherst (1816).

1720–1850. Taukwang.

The exclusive privilege of the East India company ceasing in 1834, lord Napier was appointed superintendent of British trade († 1834). Imperial prohibition of the opium trade. Commissioner Lin sent to Canton with extraordinary powers (1838). Surrender of opium by Capt. Elliot, British commissioner to the Chinese, by whom it was destroyed (over 20,000 chests), 1839, Mar.—June. The continuance of the trade, and the English demands that the loss be made good to their traders, caused the

1840-1842. First war with Great Britain (Opium war). A treaty concluded by Keshin, successor of Lin (Hong-kong ceded to England), was rejected by the emperor. The English captured Amoy (1842, Aug. 27), Ning-po (Oct. 13), Shang-hai (1842, June 19), and stormed Ching-keang (July 21).

1842, Aug. 29. Treaty of Nanking.

- 1. Canton, Amoy, Fuhchau, Ning-po, Shanghai, opened to British trade. 2. Hong-kong ceded to England. 3. The Chinese paid \$21,000,000. 4. Establishment of a regular tariff. 5. Official intercourse to be on a basis of equality.
- 1844, July 3. Treaty with the United States (Caleb Cushing, ambassador). Treaty with France (Oct. 23).

1850-1860. Hienfung.

1850, Aug. Outbreak of the Tai-ping rebellion (1850–1864). The leader was Hung Sui-tsuen, who called himself Tien-teh ("celestial virtue"), and claimed to have been commissioned by heaven to conduct a political and religious reform of the empire. Promulgation of a religious system based on some knowledge of Christianity.

1853. Capture of Nanking (Mar. 19), Shanghai (Sept. 7). Suitsuen proclaimed emperor.

1855. Failure of the attack made by the rebels on Peking.

1856, Oct. 8. The lorcha 1 Arrow, owned by a Chinese, but commanded by an Irishman and flying the British flag, was boarded at Canton by Chinese officers in search of suspected pirates; twelve natives were carried off and the flag pulled down.

1856, Nov. Three Chinese forts destroyed by the American fleet under commodore Armstrong, the Chinese having fired upon

American boats.

The attempt of the English government (Palmerston, p. 543) to obtain a disavowal of the attack upon the Arrow, or an apology therefor, resulted in the

1857-1860. (Second) war with Great Britain allied with France. Lord Elgin, English envoy. Destruction of the Chinese fleet (1857, May 26, 27). Capture of Canton (Dec. 28, 29). Treaties of Tientsin (June, 1858) with Great Britain, France, the United States.

Infraction of the treaty (1859, June), renewal of the war. Repulse of the English attempt to force the passage of the Pei-ho forts (June

¹ Lorcha: a light Chinese sailing vessel, carrying guns, built after the European model, but rigged like a Chinese junk. — IMPERIAL DICTIONARY.

25). Chinese defeat at *Palikao* (1860, Sept. 21). Destruction of the summer palace (Oct. 6), surrender of *Peking* (Oct. 12).

1860, Oct. 24. Treaty of Peking.

Ratification of the treaty of *Tientsin*; toleration of Christianity; revised tariff; payment of an indemnity; resident ambassadors at *Peking*.

1860-1875. Tungchi, six years old.

Palace revolution. Administration of prince Kung. Reorganization of the imperial army under general Ward, an American († 1861), and colonel Gordon, an Englishman. The "ever victorious force."

1862-1864. Suppression of the rebellion. Capture of Nanking (1864, July 19). Suicide of Hung Sui-tsuen.

1866. Successful rebellion of Yakub Beg († 1877) in Kashgar.

1868. Embassy of Anson Burlingame (and two Chinese envoys) to the treaty powers. (Burlingame † 1870.)

1870, May. Mohammedan rebellion in the northwest (Yun-nan,

Kan-suh).

1871. Russia annexed Kuldja, until the Chinese power should be

reëstablished in that region.

1873. Settlement of the audience question; foreign ambassadors received by the emperor without the ceremony of prostration (kotow). Suppression of the Mohammedan rebellion.

1875 — x. Kwangsii, three years old (Tsai-tien).

1876, June 30. Opening of the first railroad in China (Shanghai to Woosung, eleven miles).

1877-1878. Terrible famine in the north of China.

1877, Dec. Defeat and assassination of Yakub Beg. Capture of Kashqar.

1879, June. Treaty with Russia negotiated by Chung-how: China obtained only a portion of Kuldja and paid an indemnity. Rejection of the treaty.

1881, Aug. Peace with Russia negotiated by the marquis Tseng. Cession of nearly all of the Kuldja district; China paid the

expenses of Russian occupation.

1882. A threatened war with Japan avoided by Chinese diplomacy. Dispute with the French over *Tonquin* (p. 535).

§ 7. JAPAN.

Mikados.	Shoguns (Tokugawa family).	
1817-1846, Ninko	1787–1838	Iyenori.
•	(1838–1853	Iyeyoshi.
1846-1866, Komei	₹ 1853–1859	Iyesada.
•	1859–1866	Iyemochi.
1867—x. Mutsuhito	1866–1868	Keiki (Hitotsubashi-yoshi-
		nobu; Noriyoshi).

Growing dissatisfaction with the usurped power of the shoguns among the samurai; jealousy of the long possession of the shogunate by the Tokugawa family (1603–1868) among the great daimios.

1853, July 7. Commodore Perry, of the United States navy, entered the harbor of Yedo with four vessels, but soon departed; in Feb. 1854, he returned, and concluded a

1854, Mar. 21. Treaty between Japan and the United States, which was signed by the shogun, who passed himself off as "secular emperor" of Japan, under the newly assumed title of taikun (tycoon, "great prince," properly a title of the mikado). Treaties with Great Britain (1854, Oct. 14), and Russia (1855, Jan. 26). In 1858 treaties (peace, amity, unrestricted commerce) concluded with the United States (Townshend Harris), Great Britain (Elgin), France, Russia, — all signed by the shogun.

1859. Yokohama, Nagasaki, Hakodate, opened to trade.

These unwarranted assumptions of power on the part of the shogun angered the mikado and the *Kioto* court, where the foreigners were regarded with deep distrust.

.860. First Japanese embassy to the United States sent out by Ii,

prime minister of the shogun (assassinated Mar. 23).

1861-1865. Civil dissensions. Outrages upon foreign representatives. Death of an Englishman (Richardson) in a broil with the train of the brother of the prince of Satsuma, avenged by the bombardment of Kagoshima (in Satsuma), and the exaction of \$625,000 (1862).

1862. The daimios, released from compulsory residence at Yedo,

flocked to Kioto.

1863. Some American, Dutch, and French vessels, having anchored in the forbidden roadstead of Shimonoseki after due warning, were fired upon. In reprisal these powers bombarded the batteries, inflicting considerable loss. In spite of this

1864, Sept. 4. Bombardment and destruction of the Shimonoseki batteries by English, French, Dutch, and American vessels. Exaction of an indemnity of \$3,000,000, of which the United States received \$785,000.1

1865, Nov. 25. Ratification of treaties extorted by the foreign powers.

1867, Nov. 19. Resignation of Keiki, the last shogun.

1868. Restoration of the mikado. End of the dual government.

The proclamation setting forth the resumption of government by the mikado (1868, Jan. 3) was followed by the revolt of *Keiki* and by open war, which, after severe fighting (battles of *Fushimi*, 1868, Jan. 27–30; *Wakamatsu*, *Hakodate*), ended in favor of the imperialists (June, 1869).

1869, Nov. Residence of the mikado transferred from Kioto to Yedo (Jeddo), the name of the latter place having been previously

changed to Tokio ("the eastern capital").

1870. The mikado, by advice of the leading samurai (Okubo), changed front, and welcomed the foreigners.

1871. Embassy to the *United States* and *Europe*.

1871. Abolition of feudalism; relegation of the daimios to private life; abolition of the title; exchange of their revenues for pensions.

In Feb. 1883, the house of representatives accepted a favorable report upon the Japanese indemnity bill. Repayment of the \$785,000 without interest.

Assimilation to western civilization. Issue of a code of criminal law (revised 1881); establishment of a government post; introduction of the telegraph; railroad from Yokohama to Shinogana (1872); bureau of education; adoption of the Gregorian calendar (1874, Jan. 1); female normal school (1875); university of Tokio (1879); reëstablishment of the Shinto faith (p. 32); new military system.

1874. Expedition to Formosa, avenging the murder of Japanese sail-

ors on that island.

1876. Enforcement of a treaty with Corea.

1877. Rebellion in Satsuma (Saigo, Saburo) suppressed after heavy fighting (Saigo, † Sept. 24). Large issue of inconvertible paper money to defray the expenses.

1878. Establishment of local elective assemblies for regulating local taxation, and with right of petitioning the central government; franchise secured to all males twenty-one years of age who pay a land tax of \$5.00.

1881. Negotiations with the foreign powers relative to the adoption of a higher tariff, and to the abolition of the privilege enjoyed by foreigners of living under the jurisdiction of their native country. Dispute with China over the *Loo-Choo* islands.

1882, Oct. Imperial decree establishing a new constitution; promise

of a national assembly in 1890.

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ABBREVIATIONS: a. = abbot; adm. = admiral; b. = bishop; burgr. = burggrave; c. = count; d. = duke; c. = earl; el. = elector; g. d. = grand duke; H. R. E. = Holy Roman Empire; k. = king; landg. = landgrave; margr. = margrave; pr. = prince; q. = queen; U. S. = United States of America; visc. = viscount.

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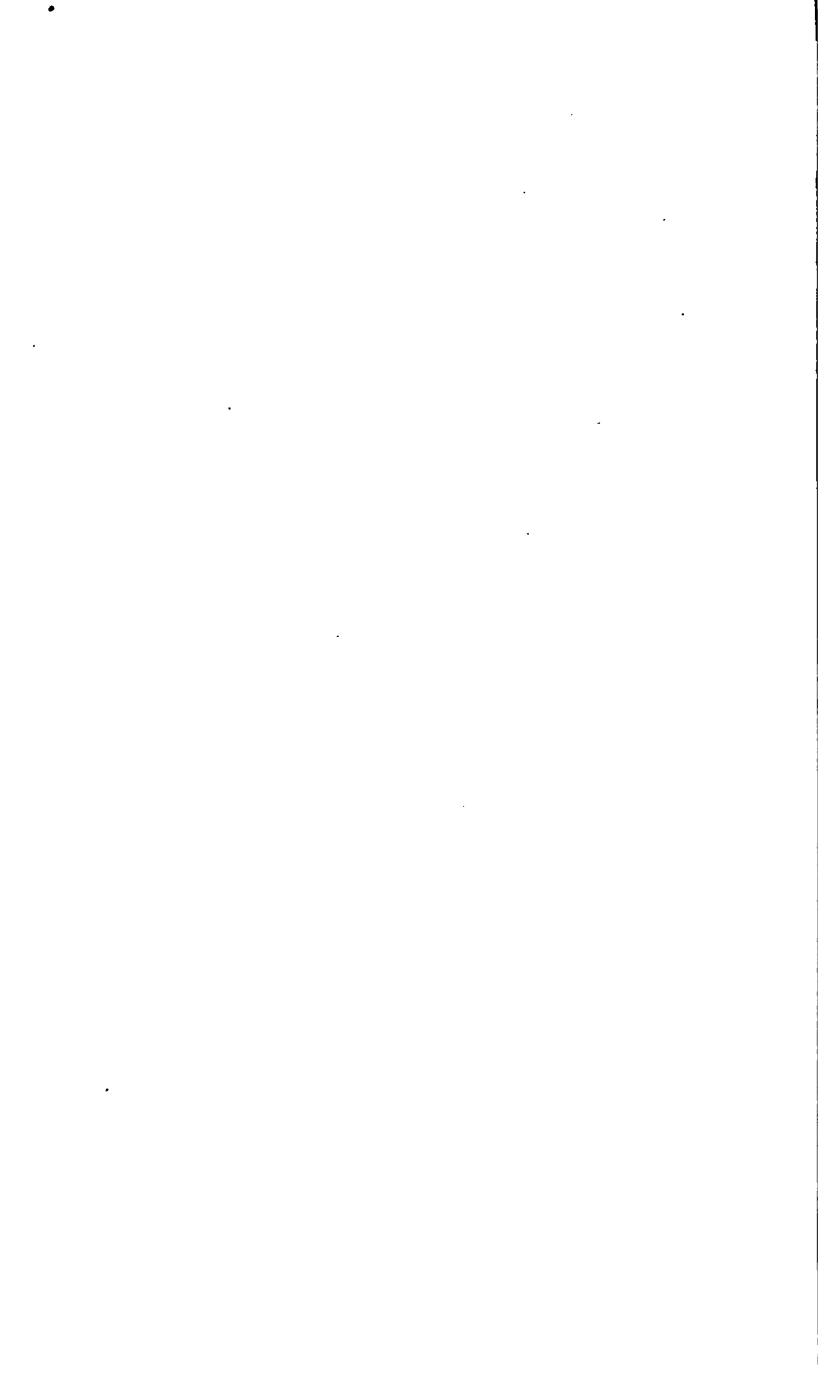
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